The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 14, 1898.

The Week.

Under the circumstances, the joint note of the Powers presented on Thursday to the United States and to Spain amounted only to the last desperate appeals of the friends of two men bent on a duel. It expressed the hope that "further negotiations" would lead to peace. But Mr. McKinley, in his reply, brushed negotiations aside, and spoke only of the intention of this Government to end the insufferable situation in Cuba. The Spanish Minister of Foreign Affairs also repelled the intimation that further concessions could be made by Spain. The Powers appealed to the "feelings of humanity and moderation of the President and the American people," but learned that it was precisely to "fulfil a duty to humanity" that we were going to war. This may have surprised the Ambassadors, but if so they diplomatically concealed it.

In the President's message, so anxiously and so long expected, a large portion of space is taken up in the beginning with a calm if not always consecutive historical narrative of the negotiations as far as they have gone—yet without specifying the grounds of the negotiations hitherto carried on with Spain. As to these, the public is still left in the dark. The President concedes the Spanish compliance with our demands for the cessation of the Weyler style of warfare, and argues, with some assistance from President Jackson in the case of Texas (which, *absit omen!* ended in annexation), against recognition of the insurgents as belligerents. He shows the burdens and inconvenience which any such recognition would entail. He is also opposed to the recognition of the independence of the so-called Cuban Republic. He maintains, however, that we are justified in forcible intervention, not for the purpose of according rights to either party, but for the purpose of putting an end to the disturbance to our peace and the injury to our commerce caused by the continuance of the contest, to say nothing of its outrages on humanity. He therefore recommends that he be empowered to use the army and navy of the United States to secure

> "a full and final termination of hostilities between the government of Spain and the people of Cuba, and to secure in the island the establishment of a stable government capable of maintaining order and observing its international obligations, insuring peace and tranquillity and the security of its citizens, as well as our own."

He insists that Spain's failure in Cuba has been complete, and that "the war must stop." His closing paragraph gives a blow between the eyes to the Jingoes by saying, apropos of the Queen's armistice proclaimed by Gen. Blanco on Monday:

> "If this measure attains a successful result, then our aspirations as a Christian, peace-loving people will be realized. If it fails, it will be only another justification for our contemplated action."

The last ditch of the Jingoes is their demand for war "to avenge the destruction of the *Maine*." They propose that we shall assume that the vessel was destroyed by the complicity of the Spanish authorities, in the face of the verdict of our own board of inquiry, that "no evidence has been obtainable fixing the responsibility for the destruction of the *Maine* upon any person or persons"; and that we shall go to war, not in hot blood and without a moment's reflection, as a quick-tempered man hits somebody whom he suspects of having hurt him, but after eight weeks of deliberation, during which we ourselves admit that we have been unable to find out who was to blame. Merely to state such a proposition is to expose its gross absurdity. The President, while *ex officio* adopting the theory of his board that the explosion was external, and doubtless finding it a welcome make-weight in his interference platform, nevertheless leaves the way open for acceptance of the proper and reasonable suggestion of the Spanish Government that "the facts be ascertained by an impartial investigation by experts, whose decision Spain accepts in advance."

One of the most troublesome aspects of the Cuban question, as Mr. McKinley has had to confront it, is that it was a legacy to him from the preceding Administration. He had not a clean slate to begin with. Mr. Cleveland had kept his hands off Cuban interference, but ha had plainly told Congress and told Spain that interference would soon come unless there should be a great change for the better in Cuba. He had thus committed this Government to a policy with which Mr. McKinley could not absolutely break. It was necessary for the new President to take up the negotiations where he found them, and do the best he could with the situation as it had been made for him. We thus see Mr. Cleveland handing on a most dangerous gift to Mr. McKinley, just as Mr. Harrison had transmitted to Mr. Cleveland the acutest embarrassments which the latter had to meet during his term of office. The McKinley deficit-making tariff and the Sherman silver-purchase law were the things that wrecked Mr. Cleveland politically; and the cruel dilemma in which the Republican party now finds itself arises in like manner from conditions for which it had no direct party responsibility. Call it poetic justice, repaying fatal legacy with fatal legacy, or what you will, the parallel is suggestive.

It is one of the historical presumptions of American politics that the second year after a Presidential election will bring out majorities against the party in power. This has been long feared by the Republican party. They have thought it not improbable that they would lose the House *on existing issues*. The recent elections have done much to justify this anxiety. Now here is the remedy. Mr. Grosvenor, the President's right-hand man, asked in the House on March 31: "Do you think that this great party in power to-day is going to be unfaithful to a trust which, as the gentleman from Texas intimates, will, if properly discharged, bring glory to the Administration? Will the Administration now in power run away from the most brilliant opportunity that any administration since the days of Abraham Lincoln has had to establish itself and its party in the praise and honor and glory of a mighty people?" The same mouthpiece a week later declared: "This war will be fought under the banner of the Republican administration of this Government, or it will never be fought at all." We see it is to be a Republican war, if there is to be a war at all. Suffering Cuba is to be saved by good Republicans, if she is to be saved at all. It would never do to let her be relieved by Democrats, and it must be admitted the Democrats are ready to do it, by a good war if necessary. Congress is not going to be "euchred" again, as it was by Mr. Cleveland, who got ahead of it so splendidly in 1895. He discovered "a good thing" in the Venezuelan forests, and he soon had them all "standing behind" him, sheepish-looking, but mute.

During the past eight weeks Congress has been fuming like a volcano just ready to spout lava and overwhelm villages and corn fields. The subject of its fumes has been war—war with Spain—yet when the military committee of the House, after long cogitation, brought in the results of its labor in the form of a bill to put us on a war footing of equality with Spain, the bill was rejected by a vote of 155 to 61—that is, by more than a two-thirds majority. So our situation to-day as regards the army is just what it was before the fuming began. Although our regular army is small, it is commonly supposed that we have a great force of militia ready to be called into

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action in an emergency. This force is usually called the National Guard, although that term is not found in any law of the United States. There is a law in reference to the militia. It is found under title xvi. of the Revised Statutes. The public is not aware, and it is doubtful if Congress is, that the militia cannot be called into active service except for two specific objects, viz., to repel invasion or to suppress rebellion, and even then for only nine months' service. So it appears that the militia could not be called into service to invade Cuba or Spain, but only to repel the invasion of some foreign Power. It may be supposed that Congress can change the law on this subject, and authorize the President to call out the militia for aggressive purposes. Nothing of the kind. The Constitution forbids it. Article 1, sec. 8, clause 14, gives Congress power "to provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions." No authority here to send the militia outside of the United States. *Expressio unius, exclusio alterius.* So it appears that for the purpose of a foreign war we have 26,010 soldiers and no more, and no lawful way of obtaining more.

A very important war consideration was called attention to by the *Tribune* on Thursday, when, in noting the facts that "enlistments in the navy are very slow and desertions are getting frequent," it said:

> "Within the last day or two it has been reported that as much as $250 has been paid civil officers for the apprehension of deserters in a single day at a Southern port. It has been found necessary, according to this report, to detail officers from war vessels in port to be in attendance each morning at the police courts and station-houses to return intending deserters to their ships. Taken in conjunction, these two circumstances would seem to indicate, first, that the dearth of men in the navy is not being filled as rapidly as it should be in a time like this, and, second, that an unusual proportion of those now in the service are anxious to escape from it."

The reason for this condition of affairs is obvious. Nobody wants to fight Spain in Cuba or its adjacent waters, but in some other place, like New York, or Nebraska, or South Dakota, or some entirely healthy region. The *Tribune* suggests that "some of the newspapers which have been howling for war with Spain and making war upon the President, should let up briefly in those two directions, and begin to vociferate upon the crying need of recruits for the navy." A better suggestion is that the editors themselves enlist, or, if they refuse to do so, be conscripted. So far as our observation goes, none of the advocates of war at any price expects to do any fighting himself. He expects somebody else to do that—who, he does not exactly know, but if you press him he will say that negroes will do better than anybody else, since the Cuban climate is not so deadly to them. This self-sacrificing idea has found advocates even in the clerical profession. It far surpasses the noble self-sacrifice of Artemus Ward's offer of all his wife's relations.

Astonishing disclosures as to the difficulty of securing recruits for the army were made by the Philadelphia *Ledger* on Monday. Stations have been opened in that city, and on Saturday 100 applicants were examined. Only four of the 100 could pass the test and were accepted. Thousands of men have offered to enlist in Philadelphia since the war excitement began, but only about 125 have been accepted, all the rest having been turned away on account of mental or physical disability, principally the latter, since the mental requirements include nothing harder than simple mathematics, and previous experience is not essential as in the case of the navy. The *Ledger* thinks that such figures indicate a degree of physical stamina among the applicants so low that it should engage the attention of scientific students. The only consolation it can offer is that "it is not improbable that many of the applicants were of the sort that have failed to meet the physical requirements of ordinary trades and industries."

The condition of our friends the reconcentrados in Cuba in the event of war must be terrible. All of their supplies come from the United States. The sending of supplies has already stopped because the Ward Line steamers are no longer running. As these can get no mercantile freight, they cannot carry the contributions of the benevolent societies and individuals to the starving people whom we have set out to relieve. So their last estate will be worse than their first. In the meantime the insurgents are burning cane fields wherever they can apply the torch. A letter from Santiago de Cuba to the *Herald* says that the insurgents had given orders to the planters not to grind their crop. Not to grind is equivalent to losing it altogether. Not to grind is to throw out of employment all the laborers usually employed in that work, and leave them to starve also. The temptation to grind is so strong that it is likely in many cases to lead to disobedience of the order of the insurgents. So they are burning the cane in the fields. Thousands of acres have been consumed, and the work of destruction goes on daily. "Possibly," says the *Herald* correspondent, "the insurgent leaders have not fully considered all the effects resulting from a persistence in the line of policy which they have adopted, and it might be as well if they reflected upon the question of whether Cuba was not paying too dear a price in suffering humanity for the slight injury inflicted upon the Spanish treasury." If any such appeal were addressed to them, they would probably say, "War is hell"—an appropriate answer at all events.

Nothing is heard nowadays about the annexation of Hawaii, and the promoters of that scheme have evidently concluded that there is no use in pushing it at present. The probability of war with Spain has made so plain the impolicy of our being forced to defend Hawaii that everybody recognizes the good fortune of the nation in having escaped that necessity. The probability of war with Spain has been brought forward by those who advocate annexing the Danish islands as a reason for rushing through that project without the slightest delay, and a fortnight ago they seemed hopeful that they might succeed before the public realized what they were about. But happily the opponents of the project in the Senate were not stampeded, and they stood so firm that its friends have felt constrained to abandon their attempt.

Now that the necessity of more revenue is admitted even by Mr. Dingley, the idea of raising $30,000,000 to $40,000,000 a year by the simple and reasonable device of doubling the tax on beer is again suggested. But the mere suggestion is sufficient to arouse organized opposition, and a delegation representing the United States Brewers' Association has already appeared before the House ways and means committee to protest against any such increase. There is every reason to fear that the protest will prove effectual. The reason was frankly stated by Senator Hoar of Massachusetts in a speech last December, when he pointed out that the brewing industry could easily stand an additional tax of a dollar a barrel on beer, but confessed that "we do not dare to compel that industry to pay a reasonable and proper tax, because we are afraid of the political power the brewers will exert, determining the political power in this country between different political parties."

Despite the excitement over the Cuban situation, Mr. Wanamaker continues to draw large audiences in his campaign against the perpetuation of Quay rule in Pennsylvania, and he makes some fresh revelation of the ring's rascality in every speech. At Williamsport his new exposure was of the wholesale swindling by the State printer, W. Stanley Ray, a Quay lieutenant, who was formerly clerk in the headquarters of the Republican State committee. He began his work July 1, 1897, and early in September filed an account of three months' work, amounting, it is alleged, to between $11,000 and $12,000. By direction of Gov. Hastings, the State Su-

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perintendent of Printing submitted this bill to the Attorney-General's Department before approving it. The Deputy Attorney-General went over the bill carefully, found that Ray had overcharged the State to an amount said to exceed $7,000, filed an opinion to this effect December 28, and the finding was approved by the Attorney-General and Governor. Mr. Wanamaker said that he had been informed that in one item alone the State printer overcharged the State $6,420, on another bill $743, on another $277, and on still another $186. Altogether, over 60 per cent. of the charges were unwarranted.

At Royersford and at Pottstown, Mr. Wanamaker went still further into details as to the corruption of Quay rule in Pennsylvania. On Friday night he drew up an indictment with ten counts, beginning with the assertion that "this State for nearly forty years has been under the control of the Camerons, father and son, and their successors, M. S. Quay and W. H. Andrews." He proceeded to charge that during this period "the expenses of the State and the taxes have steadily increased"; that "the prices of property and the means of making a living have been decreased right along"; and that "the methods of legislation at Harrisburg have, year after year, gone from worse to worse, until the name Pennsylvania Legislature is a hissing and reproach all over the United States." On Saturday night Mr. Wanamaker "showed up" the methods of legislation at Harrisburg, particularly in the Senate, of whose Republican members he declared that "at least thirty-five of the forty-four were controlled absolutely by W. H. Andrews and Senator Quay." Describing the upper branch as "an incubator to hatch the legislation that has alarmed the taxpayers and made the name of the last Legislature a reproach," he specified some of the things which the Quay organization did, and, in reference to the Bliss beer bill, declared that on the Saturday and Sunday preceding the change made in the bill in the Senate, by which many important Pennsylvania industries would have been crippled or destroyed, two car-loads of brewers from western Pennsylvania held a consultation with W. H. Andrews and other members of the Legislature at a Philadelphia hotel; that the fact of their visit was suppressed by the newspapers, their special cars were carefully guarded, and strict orders were given to the car porters that no one should know who the occupants of the cars were, or what was the nature of their business; and that within forty-eight hours after their departure the beer bill was changed to the mercantile-tax bill.

If we avoid a war with Spain, we may have a war with Tammany on our hands, the object being full possession of all the municipal offices in spite of law. The gravity of the situation was increased on Friday by a notice which Mr. McAneny of the Civil-Service Reform Association sent to the Comptroller, warning him not to pay salaries to men who had been appointed under the new rules of the City Civil-Service Commissioners until these rules had been approved, as the law requires, by the State Civil-Service Commissioners. Mr. McAneny also called the Comptroller's attention to a perfectly devilish provision of the city charter which requires that the "incumbents of positions abolished or made unnecessary by this act shall be preferred for appointment to positions demanding their services," and directs the City Civil-Service Commissioners "to place the names of such persons on the proper eligible lists, and to give them on such lists the preference after veterans." No wonder Tammany feels like declaring war upon such a fiendish law as that. Tammany officials have been abolishing places in order to get rid of their incumbents, and then recreating them in order to fill them with Tammany men. Not only is this process illegal, but even if it were not, what is the good of it if the abolished officials must be given preference in the filling of all vacancies?

If our war-craze had not made us oblivious of everything else, the steady preparations of the English Government to establish the gold standard in India would have attracted much notice in our press. It is really an event of capital economic importance. India has been the chief bulwark of our silverites, lo, these many years. It was through India that we were to find the means of bringing England to her knees on the silver question. India was, in fact, the one country of the world wherein it appeared most difficult to give up the silver standard. By long habit and by the customs of trade, silver seemed too firmly entrenched in Indian finance ever to be dislodged. But the inexorable drift of exchange and the growing consensus of civilized nations made the change necessary; and it is now confessed that the closing of the Indian mints to silver was only a preliminary to the frank going over to the gold standard. Lord George Hamilton, Secretary for India, said as much in the Commons the other day, and the bimetallic Balfour did not rise to crush him.

Mr. Balfour's speech in the House of Commons touching the acquisition of Wei-Hai-Wei by Great Britain conveys more information in reference to the Chinese situation than everything that has gone before. It may be summed up in a few words. Great Britain recognizes the fact that the Chinese empire is falling asunder. Nothing can hold it together, and the only question is who shall get the pieces. She has decided wisely to take one of them instead of fighting to make the other Powers relinquish what they have grabbed. She has made some other gains, namely, that the region of the Yang-tse-Kiang shall not be alienated to any foreign Power, that the successor of Sir Robert Hart as Director of the Chinese Imperial Maritime Customs is to be an Englishman, and that access to the inland waters is to be had by ships of all nations. A fourth concession is the opening of three new treaty ports—Funing, Yochau, and Chin-Wang. All these gains accrue equally to the advantage of the United States if we choose to avail ourselves of them—as we shall. On the face of things they depend for their validity and permanence on the ability of China to make them good. In fact, however, they depend upon England's ability to enforce them, and this is the reason why she has secured the port of Wei-Hai-Wei. This was done after negotiations with Russia, in which it was sought to dissuade her from taking Port Arthur. When this effort failed, Great Britain notified Russia that she should hold herself free to take steps to safeguard her own interests in that quarter, and, accordingly, negotiated for and obtained the lease of Wei-Hai-Wei on the same terms as those by which Russia obtained Port Arthur. Whatever the terms of the leases may be, the fact is that the two Powers will hold what they have got with the strong hand. There is no necessary conflict between them, but, as they are brought pretty near each other in the Gulf of Pe-Chi-Li, the chances of collision are somewhat increased.

The battle the other day in the Sudan, in which the Mahdi's fortified camp was "rushed" by the British force, gave one an idea how different the history of the world might have been had Rome had that superiority over her assailants which science has given us over our modern barbarians. It ought, too, to fill us with admiration for the finally worn-out Titan, which subdued and civilized so many states with no other weapon than the pilum and the sword. Every modern nation is filled with admiration of a bayonet charge, and boasts greatly when its own men make one, even after the enemy has been demoralized, as last week in the Sudan, by an hour's bombardment by the artillery. But if this be great, what are we to say of the legions who for seven hundred years met all the existing barbarians of the earth and brought about finally the great "Roman peace" in hand-to-hand encounters, in which they had no advantage except training and discipline? Speaking of one of the most critical days in Gaul, Cæsar says that his soldiers "did the business with their swords."

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LIGHT FROM THE JUNTA.

There has been a great deal of honest ignorance in this country about the kind of people the insurgent Cubans are. The stump-speech, political-platform, able-editor view of them has made them out a little lower than the angels—patriots fighting for all that mankind holds dearest. As we came nearer to the verge of war in their behalf, the more superhuman they seemed to be. But just as we were about, or thought we were, to take the fatal plunge, the official representatives in this country of the Cuban insurgents came out with such a clear and authentic description of their character, aims, and methods that ignorance any longer will be of that invincible kind which can expect no mercy. The Junta evidently made the greatest mistake of its life in so doing. Its true rôle was secrecy and the issuing of patriotic bulletins. In fact, there is something necessarily dark and mysterious about the very term Junta. Its personnel has to remain obscure in order that its name and acts may strike terror, its victories on paper obtain credence, and its bonds find gullible purchasers. The moment its members come out into the daylight, it is all up with them. The magic Junta vanishes like an exhalation, and in its room we see a set of patriots very like those mythical Cuban "majors," filled with bullets, whom Buffalo Bill exhibits at his show. It is generally believed that the mere sight of them in Washington has made the recognition of Cuban independence impossible.

The Junta has had a varied activity in this country for the past three years, but it does seem as if its mounting frenzy led it last week to commit suicide. Its angry official statement that it would turn its arms against the United States if we intervened to give them peace without recognition of their independence, has opened many blind eyes. The ridiculous heroics in which the Junta indulged were too much even for the battle-scarred reporters. "We will fight on, against American bayonets," said Mr. Palma, "sadly but determined." "We would resist with force of arms as bitterly and tenaciously as we have fought the armies of Spain," said Mr. Rubens—an American lawyer, speaking for hire, whose bitter and tenacious fighting has all been done in New York city. He appears to have been since convinced that he abused the privilege of counsel in order to hang himself and his clients, pleads that he was misunderstood, and that he made his statement on certain "indications" which had proved to be ill founded. But the mischief was done, and a powerful searchlight has been turned on the whole Cuban intrigue, its management and its purposes.

We do not in the least blame these Cuban agitators for clinging to their well-laid plans in desperation; we only blame those too-credulous Americans who have taken them for demigods. For thirty years these Cubans have been working and praying for Cuban "independence"—that is, a government, or a simulacrum of government, in Cuba with themselves at the head of it. Latterly, they have been in full sight of the promised land, and were trembling with eager anticipation of the good time they soon would have helping themselves to the milk and honey. They had their resolutions recognizing independence all safely drawn and ready to be reported from the foreign-affairs committees of both House and Senate. Suddenly, to their affrighted ears came the news that the President was against recognition of Cuban independence, now as he was last December, and that he was going to intervene simply to give them peace and a stable government. This was too much for their self-control, and in their first transports of rage they uttered those wild threats against Americans which astounded the whole country, and sent a cold chill down the back of every man with a Cuban bond in his pocket.

The right to issue bonds, in fact, appears to be the only attribute of "independence" which the Junta cares to have the United States recognize. Peace and a settled government are the barrenest idealities in comparison. We have no doubt that the able jurists of the Junta have pondered long and deeply on that prime attribute of sovereignty—the right to borrow money. They have very carefully considered also the opinion of our Supreme Court that a sovereign may put out unlimited quantities of paper money. By way of anticipation of these delightful fruits of "independence," they have already issued a fine variety of Cuban bonds. There are the "green bonds" of 1869 (color nicely adapted to the dupes who bought them), and the "red" and "blue" bonds of 1872. These are all said by the *Herald* to be bought and sold every day in Wall Street. The latest bonds are of 1896. How many of them have been issued it is hard to find out. The "Treasurer" says only $150,000, but the "Secretary of Legation" at Washington confesses to $1,000,000 rather vaguely disposed of. But this is nothing to the discrepancies which would arise if the Cuban republic once got well established in Havana, with the printing-presses in good running order. The point is, however, that the Junta must have bonds to issue and to "quote," or it will fight. Peace, relief of the starving, the revival of industry and agriculture in Cuba under a settled government—these are secondary and trifling considerations.

The London *Standard* hopes that "the humor of the American people" will be stirred to good effect by the preposterous statement of the Junta. We hope for something from the indignation of the American people. It has been imposed upon shamelessly by a set of masqueraders, who were betrayed last week into unmasking for a moment. We caught a glimpse of the truth. Instead of humane, self-sacrificing patriots, willing to do anything to free their native land from cruelty and suffering, we saw selfish plotters driven by the lust of power and wealth. That illusion is for ever dispelled.

DURATION OF THE WAR.

In case we have a war with Spain, an important question will be, How long will it last? It is generally assumed that, since such a war would be begun on account of Cuba, the taking of that island by us would be the end of it. But that does not follow. Spain might be willing to drop Cuba, provided she could be rid of it without dishonor. She might not be sorry to have it wrested from her by superior force, since in that case she would be delivered of a woful expenditure of blood and treasure, to which at present she sees no end. If she could be rid of that burden involuntarily, so that her people could not reproach either the Government or themselves, she would certainly be a gainer. She has lost 100,000 men or more in vain attempts to put down the rebellion. She has spent $200,000,000, and her present expenses there are at the rate of $8,000,000 per month. Why should she not welcome any chance, which should appear honorable in her own eyes and in those of the world, to abandon the task?

Instead of being weaker after losing Cuba and, perhaps, Porto Rico, Spain would be stronger than before and in much better condition to fight. The war would then be prosecuted on the ocean, wherever any American or Spanish ships are to be found—war-ships and other. Spanish commerce would be swept from the ocean, and ours also. We have more to lose than Spain has, but, whether little or much, it would all go. It would not be necessary that any of our merchant ships be actually captured. The rates of marine insurance would be prohibitory, and that would settle the whole question. Our ships would not leave our own ports. Our goods would either be carried in foreign bottoms, both coastwise and otherwise, or not be carried at all. British commerce would be the principal gainer. The German, French, Norwegian, and Italian ship-owners would gain in proportion to their available tonnage. They would divide the spoils of both Spanish and American commerce among themselves, and rightly so. That would be one of the punishments that both combatants would suffer. It would be in proportion to the amount of their shipping and to the duration of the war.

Is there any reason why such a war should ever end? Other Powers might interfere, but we can see no reason why it should end at our option. Spain is so

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far distant that we could not invade her even if we had an army; but we have no army, and it appears that Congress is not in favor of having one. Congress, we are told, wants a war, but wants it without soldiers, or at all events without trained officers. During the last administration it wanted to have its bills paid without money. It wants to have warships without steel plates. That is the reason why we are buying ships abroad now. Other nations go to war on the gold basis, and take great pains to have the gold in readiness. We should probably go about it on the silver basis, or reach it soon. The Democrats, or a majority of them, would perhaps favor war for that reason. Many droll conceptions find lodgment in the national capital, but the drollest of all is the conception that the war would naturally end with our taking Cuba.

In fact, it would only begin there. We should then stand in Spain's shoes so far as pacifying the island goes. The insurgents say that they will fight us, just as they have fought Spain, if we do not recognize their independence. That means that immediately after taking Cuba we should evacuate it. Undoubtedly that would be the best and cheapest thing for us to do, but we should feel rather sheepish, perhaps, when we came to cast up the account of profit and loss. Spain, as we have said, is too far distant to be invaded by us, even if we had an army. What else can we do to her? How can we compel her to stop fighting after we take Cuba? What form of coercion can we put upon her? She can send out "commerce-destroyers" till the crack of doom. Privateers are commerce-destroyers, and these go without being sent. It is with them a private speculation. They cost the Government nothing. Is it supposed that we can chase them off the ocean? One *Alabama* was sufficient to drive our mercantile flag from the high seas, in spite of all our war-ships. But Spain has a navy of her own. She is not in the plight that the Confederates were during the civil war. She has a recognized standing among nations, as the Confederates had not. She has ports. She has dry-docks, and that is more than we can boast of. She has nearly as many ships to begin with as we have, and she can build more according to her need—not as many as we can, perhaps, but enough to prolong the war indefinitely, since one cruiser afloat will annihilate more commerce than ten can protect. Have not our Jingoes been telling us for many years what havoc they could make with British commerce by means of half-a-dozen fast cruisers? And cannot Spain perform the same office for us, not to mention her volunteer fleet of privateers?

It may be said that we can blockade Spain, but nobody really believes that. We cannot blockade her any more than she can blockade us. We have no coaling stations in the Mediterranean, and we shall get scant help in that way from any of the Powers of Europe if we show ourselves the disturbers of the world's peace by beginning the war. Spain has shown her prudence by withdrawing her war-ships from Havana, in order, perhaps, to let us fire the first gun. If we attack Havana while her ships are absent, there can never be any question as to how hostilities began. The Franco-Prussian war of 1870 demonstrated that the world's sympathy is a great factor in wars at the present day. Even when not accompanied by active help, it encourages one side and depresses the other. "Thrice is he armed that hath his quarrel just."

There is no means to localize the strife or confine it to West Indian waters. Modern wars between maritime nations rage over the four quarters of the globe, and they may rage as long as the combatants can keep anything afloat. We can imagine some surprise on the part of our Jingoes, after "clearing Spain out of Cuba," if the war should be found to be still active in the Pacific and Indian and other oceans, but we could hardly expect Spain to discontinue the fight because she had lost the first round. She would then have the $8,000,000 per month which she is now spending in Cuba to spend on us, and she would be likely, judging by her temper, to use it in that way as long as she could procure it. In short, it rests with us to begin the war, but it does not rest with us to end it, and we should be very foolish to ask Spain to oblige us by stopping it merely because we had taken Cuba from her.

It may be supposed that the other Powers would not allow such a war to be prolonged indefinitely, since it would involve the stopping of ships by the belligerents on the high seas to determine the true character of vessels and cargoes. In many cases there would be doubts, which could be settled only by prize courts. That is what prize courts exist for. The commercial world would get tired eventually of such disturbances, disputes, and delays, and would take measures to end them, but in doing so it would be compelled to look at the original cause of the war, in the light of international law. In such a tribunal the verdict would almost certainly be against the nation that first broke the peace.

WAR AND FOREIGN TRADE.

M. Brunetière has come to the aid of the generals who tried Dreyfus and the judges who tried Zola, with an article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* which will not add to his reputation as a literary man, and will certainly injure it as a publicist. He accounts for Anti-Semitism partly by the neglect of Frenchmen to occupy the fields in which the Jews have become too prominent, and partly by the too great pretensions of the Jews themselves. He is, moreover, full of scorn for the "intellectuals," meaning the scientific and literary men who have considered Dreyfus's trial a failure of justice, and Zola's a farce. He thinks they cannot know as much about public affairs as the "generals"—an odd opinion to come from a littérateur and philosopher who gives tongue so freely himself on the whole situation.

With these things, however, we do not propose to concern ourselves to-day. What is of most importance to foreigners is his view of the value of a great army as a means of expanding trade in foreign parts. He is very positive about the truth of the old adage that "trade follows the flag," and that the merchant follows close behind the soldier. His main illustration is Germany. She was, before the great victories of 1870 and the establishment of the empire, a collection of poor and feeble states, occupied mainly with philosophy and literature, without manufactures to speak of, and but little foreign commerce. Since then she has become a Power, with a huge and apparently unconquerable army, and, consequently, M. Brunetière intimates, a great manufacturing and trading nation, which has to search the world over for markets; that is, her commercial triumphs are the results of her military triumphs.

There is a certain amount of truth in this, but so blended with error as to be quite deceptive. There is no denying that Germany owes it to the army that she is to-day a great nation, and that she occupies a position in the world to which she could make no pretence half a century ago. We cannot deny either that the education her young men receive through compulsory military service is useful for industrial purposes. Respect for knowledge, experience and authority, accuracy and persistence are undoubtedly learned in the army, and they follow the youth to the counting-house and the factory with admirable results. But the notion that the military power of a nation is what enables it to sell its goods is one of those fallacies in which Jingoes delight and is one of their main reliances. They constantly preach here in America that, with a larger navy to show in foreign ports, we should stimulate the sale of American products, and that when Chinamen and South Americans hear of our resources, in money, men, and ships, they will at once withdraw their custom from weaker Powers. This is part and parcel of the sophistry which in protectionist documents and speeches makes custom-house tables returns of the commercial transactions of the nation, and not of individuals. The importations of silk are large; the nation is, therefore, spending too much on silks. It is drink-

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ing too much champagne, as any one may see by looking at the figures. Its dealings ought to support its foreign policy; therefore, it should buy of the big Powers and sell to the weak ones, and the weak ones will be only too glad to deal with such a wealthy and warlike customer, especially if it is a republic.

The greatest fact of trade is that it is carried on by individuals for individual profit. The Government rarely does anything for it except hinder it by taxation and record its figures. Buyers, wherever found, are not influenced by the fleets and armies, but, at the present day, by cheapness and goodness. They do not buy because a thing is French, or English, or American, or because it comes from a republic or a monarchy, but because it answers their needs. Of all the rubbish which the human mind has turned out in its day, the politics of trade is the greatest. German trade and manufacture have undoubtedly received a great stimulus from the foundation of the empire, but could not last a day if the buyers did not find the products either better or cheaper than those of other countries. The movement of Germany in China is a search for other markets, but the Chinamen will not buy because she has a larger army than England, but because other nations' commodities are not so good. The English trade is by far the largest in the world everywhere, but England has the smallest European army, and does not use her navy to help trade at all. Any nation may trade where she does. She has large colonies, not because she has won battles, but because her people emigrate. All the armies in the world will not make either French or German colonies good markets unless they can get Frenchmen and Germans to settle in them.

It is character, and not institutions, which make nations great, as M. Le Bon said to us the other day. The mistake of M. Brunetière and his confrères is in supposing that nations can be made great by contrivance, by enlarging the army and navy, or by changing the *scrutin de liste* for the *scrutin d'arrondissement*. They are made great by qualities, and qualities come from education and training in youth. Armies, as we have said, are excellent training-schools, if we could have them as training-schools and not as instruments for the destruction of life and property in quarrels of which the soldiers rarely know the cause. This ruins them for moral purposes. The young soldier acquires a great many traits which are very valuable for the citizen, but it is rare that any reference is made to this. He is never allowed to forget that killing is the chief end of his education; that what he is paid for and drilled for, is that he may be an effective instrument of force in the hands of other men, who may or may not be unscrupulous, ignorant, vengeful, and corrupt. Thurston and Gallinger and Mason, for instance, have as much to say as to the uses to which an American soldier and sailor may be put as three of the most upright, conscientious, and cultivated men in the country. There is nothing for which the human conscience is more necessary than war; nothing which has less to do with war.

DUFFY'S MEMOIRS.

DUBLIN, March 29, 1898.

Sir Charles G. Duffy is the doyen of those who are or have been prominently engaged in Irish politics. Twenty years ago, when past sixty, and after a successful career in Australia, he, to a friend at home, declared himself "weary of new countries" and longing "for the green pastures where we wandered of old." He believed that in Ireland, politically, "all is as barren from Dan to Isaac [Daniel O'Connell to Isaac Butt] as from Dan to Beersheba," and he thought, "When Goethe, during the French Revolution, shut his ears to clamorous current politics, and wrote books that would live, he set a grand example, which humble people in their humble way may properly imitate." On returning to Europe, and settling down in the south of France, he has certainly followed Goethe's example—so far as quantity is concerned. His books are not likely to live like those of the great German; nor are they likely to have much influence on affairs. They, however, bring back vividly to the remembrance of us of the elder generation the events of stirring times through which we have lived, and they cannot but claim the attention of all interested in Ireland.

Besides 'Conversations with Carlyle' and minor works, we have had his 'Young Ireland,' his 'Four Years of Irish History,' his 'League of the North and South.' Many of less robust mind would have shrunk from thus having had to dwell upon such records of failure. We now have 'My Life in Two Hemispheres,' just published in two volumes by Macmillan. There is much that is new relating to himself, much that he has gone over with us already relating to his country. Half of the second volume is devoted to details of Australian politics likely to be passed over rapidly by readers who have not lived under the Southern Cross. These volumes are more worthy of a permanent place on library shelves than most of the author's previous works, for his general interests were wider than those of most Irish politicians, and he had intimate relations with a large number of the men of his time. Laceration of feeling isolates and withers up the life of many a disappointed patriot. With Duffy, success in a new country healed the wounds that rankled in the old—unless in so far as they disabled him from appreciating the devotion and sacrifices of others who in the old land had, impelled by like ideas, but upon different lines, taken up the work from which he felt himself driven. He continued on terms of the closest intimacy with old associates who had risen to place and title under the government he and they had once striven to subvert. He enjoyed the society of literary men and politicians, many of whom were opposed to the policy he still, in theory at least, considered best for his country. His position as ex-Premier of a great colony and ex-Speaker of a Parliament opened up to him the best society in Europe.

These volumes may often be turned to by searchers for biographical material concerning men of the last half of the century. Apart from Irish names, we find references to John Bright, Browning, Carlyle, Disraeli, John Forster, Gladstone, Mrs. Jameson, Frederick Lucas, Macaulay, Mill, Cardinal Newman, Sir Henry Parkes, Peel, and many other well-known names. It carries us far back, indeed, to read of the author's having been disturbed at editorial labors in Dublin by "a little, middle-aged man, with pleasant smile and lively eyes, but of a countenance far from comely, and so elaborately dressed that the primrose gloves which he wore did not seem out of harmony with the splendor of his attire." This was Thomas Moore. Strange incidents of strange times we are given in plenty. Imprisonment for political offences was, in those days of 1848, far different from what it has been made since and is now. We read of soirées given by convicted patriots in Richmond Bridewell. Smith O'Brien and his friends, sentenced to be hanged, drawn, and quartered, refused commutation of sentence to transportation; and to enable the change to be made without their consent, a special act of Parliament had to be passed.

Charles Gavan Duffy was born in Monaghan, of well-to-do Catholic parents, in 1816. We are given a vivid impression of the Orange prejudice and ascendancy rampant during his youth in the north of Ireland. He had from the first strong leanings towards literature. Interest in national politics was aroused by intercourse with surviving members—many of them Presbyterians—of the United Irish organization. The bitter wrongs of the land system, not effectually reformed for fifty years later, were brought home to him. Some of his father's property was confiscated because Charles, a lad, had taken part in an election against the landlord. When but twenty we find him sub-editor of a newspaper in Dublin. Five years later he was in full charge of one. He read for the bar. In 1842 he was mainly instrumental in establishing the Dublin *Nation*, which had so much to do in swelling the fierce current of agitation upon which he and so many others were borne to disaster in 1848. He alone of the prominent Young Irelanders who stuck to their guns escaped exile. After nine months' imprisonment and the failure of the Government to convict, he was set at liberty. For six years more, in and out of Parliament, he attempted to rally the scattered forces of his countrymen—if not with the hope of obtaining repeal, at least in the expectation of mitigating the wrongs of the land system. He found it impossible to make way against discouragement engendered by famine, depopulation, and failure of high hopes. At the 106th page of the second volume we find him in despair. "I determined to quit Ireland. . . . I could no longer promise the suffering people relief; and to witness injustice without curb, and wrong without remedy, would render life too painful. An Ireland where Mr. Keogh typified patriotism and Dr. [Archbishop] Cullen the church, was an Ireland in which I could not live." (He is generally credited with the expression of the belief at this period that "Ireland is as dead as a corpse upon a dissecting-table.") Upon Mr. Duffy's career in Australia it is not my

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purpose here to dwell. It is fully set out in the volumes before us. He rose to be Prime Minister of Victoria and later Speaker of its Parliament. A knighthood was conferred upon him for services to the British Crown in materially advancing the fortunes of an integral portion of the empire.

His tendency is too much to trumpet his own services and criticise those of others. O'Connell is his peculiar aversion. It is impossible to explain away the evidences he lays before us of the great Tribune's readiness to make unworthy terms with the Government of the day and accept offices for his followers. Duffy does not appreciate the high qualities that led to O'Connell's consistent denunciations of American slavery. Ireland has already suffered to excess from a tendency on the part of her sons to expect sympathy from outsiders while they hold coldly aloof from sympathy with causes in which their own interests, or prejudices, do not appear to be concerned. His own leanings are widely liberal. As a good Catholic he is not able to see the Italian side of the Roman question; but, at least, he sympathized with Italian aspirations outside Papal territory, and he condemned John Mitchel's pro-slavery fanaticism. He appears unable to appreciate the generations of agitators that took his place on the Irish stage. As to the possibilities, there was little to choose between the chances of success of armed revolution in 1848 and in 1868. There were among the Fenians, the Home-Rulers, and the Land-Leaguers men of as pure intention and high character as there were among Duffy's political associates. These later generations have shown more endurance, more independence. He and his were in the main tried by the stress of but six or seven years. After that, they were, with one or two honorable exceptions, broken down or gathered into the Government fold. There are Home-Rulers struggling on now who enlisted nearly thirty years ago. The active Land League movement, up to the period of the Parnell split, lasted twelve years. Many have died, many have fallen back into private life, many, alas, are engaged in combating each other. Not one, that I am aware of, has taken place or pay. The Young Ireland movement left behind it a literature, poetry, oratory, and memories that will long endure. Later developments have produced little higher than "Murty Hynes," or, at the best, Kickham's "Irish Peasant Girl." The Young Irelanders effected nothing. It raises the saddest thoughts concerning the relations of England and Ireland that the appeals, the writings, and the sacrifices of this gallant band of educated gentlemen and noblemen, largely Protestant, neither induced nor moved the British public to effective reform of Irish affairs. The present quietude and crimelessness and undoubted rising prosperity of Ireland are due to two great changes brought about by the clear-sightedness of the great statesman who is now stricken down at Hawarden—the disestablishment of the Irish Protestant Church, the Land Act of 1882. The one was forced upon his attention by the state of feeling in Ireland revealed through the Fenian agitation, the other compelled through the Land League. The healing effect of Catholic emancipation in 1829 was as nothing compared to that of these measures.

Sir Charles brings his narrative to within but twenty years of our time. It would be interesting to have his views on the present state of feeling in Ireland. To most readers his memoirs will be valued chiefly as enabling us to compare the past with the present. Each generation of Irish Nationalists since the Union has cherished the hope that each great subsidiary reform accomplished would rally more to their standard. The contrary appears to have been the case. Each wave of agitation has engaged fewer and fewer of the upper, the educated, the wealthy classes. (From appearances we might have judged differently ten years ago.) Thirty years back the Protestants appeared on the point of alienation on account of Disestablishment. They were never more united in their preference of Westminster to Dublin rule than at present. The Catholic Church has been conciliated. It finds itself, under British rule, freer to expand, less fearful of change from within, than anywhere upon the Continent. The farmers do not appear to believe that they can gain much more through legal changes. Trades-unionism, naturally in a minority in an agricultural country, depends more and more upon the support of British trades-unionism, naturally so strong. A powerful interest, that of the liquor-dealers, likewise finds itself safer in reliance upon its British friends. They realize that it has been easier to trammel the trade by appeals to Irish than to British feeling. The institutions of Ireland are mainly under Government control. The civil service of the United Kingdom is now open to all through competitive examination, and the young blood of the country, that was mainly relied upon for the furtherance of national aspirations, is pressing into it. The best spirit, the most conscientious, that which it would have been most desirable to hand on, is being more and more called into the service of religion and devoted to celibacy in the great conventual institutions that are being established in such numbers all over Ireland. Much of the capital, too, that, in a Protestant community so situated, would go to advance industry and commerce and supply the sinews of war for a great national movement, is being devoted to (materially) non-productive ecclesiastical purposes. Home rule, which appeared imminent some years ago, remains what it was, a conception by some of the best minds of what would be best for Ireland and for England. Ireland has now, what she had not fifty years ago, the proffered support of an English party in the accomplishment of a national ideal. She has education and wealth such as she had not in Sir Charles Gavan Duffy's time. If she were really in earnest, if the Irish people at the bottom of their hearts really desired home rule, as they show themselves eager in the support of their Church and the pursuit of amusements, no differences or shortcomings on the part of rival leaders would stand in their way.

Much energy will naturally be absorbed in the establishment and first workings of local-government institutions about to be conferred. When county councils are fully under way, when the period has passed that has usually supervened between the flood-tides of Irish unrest, we shall know what Irish desires really are. We shall know whether Sir Charles G. Duffy's writings have been a guide to liberty, or whether they have but helped to "point a moral and adorn a tale." D. B.

Correspondence.

SPAIN AND THE UNITED STATES IN 1813-14.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The following copies of hitherto unpublished letters in my possession, written to Anthony Morris by President Madison and Mr. Monroe, his Secretary of State, may possibly be of interest to your readers, at the present time. The copies are exact, showing interlineations and corrections as they appear in the originals. Anthony Morris was a member of the Philadelphia bar, and a personal friend of Mr. Madison's. His father, Samuel Morris, served as Captain of the First City Troop of Philadelphia Light Horse under General Washington.

Yours truly, Effingham B. Morris.

Philadelphia, April 11, 1898.

[For typographical reasons, we have bracketed the interlineations and corrections in a self-explanatory way. For the Chevalier Onis, see Prof. Hart's communication in the *Nation* of March 10.—Ed. Nation.]

Dear Sir

The decision of Adm'r Warren shuts the door to the [object] destination which my proposal to you had in view. I regret it the more, as the other Stations are provided for, and would besides be ineligible probably to yourself. Would a *confidential* service for a time at Cadiz, in an informal character, be acceptable to you? The service is of an important nature and enjoins a respectable though unaccredited & in some respects unavowed agent. The allowance will be [at the rate of] upwards of $3,000. It will be agreeable to know your determination as soon as convenient; and proper that this communication should rest with yourself for the present. Should the service in question be accepted, a trip hither will be necessary & the earlier the better, as will be your departure for Cadiz.

Accept my friendly respects

(Signed) James Madison

May 5, 1813.

A. Morris, Esq'r.

Department of State, June 9, 1813.

Sir

The President having confided to you an agency of delicacy and importance at Cadiz, it it desired that you should repair there, without delay, to commence the discharge of its duties. To enable you to do this with advantage to the United States, you will receive a copy of all the documents relating to Spain which have any connection with the interesting questions now depending with her government.

The United States have been invariably desirous of preserving peace and promoting friendship with that power whatever might be the result of the present contest for the Spanish monarchy. Friendship however between nations as well as individuals must be founded on the basis of justice. Where a sense of injury exists there may be peace but there can be no friendship. A retrospect of the conduct of the two nations towards each other, will shew that the United States have received many injuries from Spain, without retorting them; that they have on the contrary manifested great forbearance under a strong sense of injury, in the hope of producing a different disposition and policy on the part of the Spanish Government towards the United States.

The injuries remaining unredressed are those proceeding from the spoliations of the last war and the suppression of the deposit at New Orleans in 1802. The former of these was intended to be provided for by a convention, which was concluded and signed by the minis-

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ters of the two powers at Madrid on the 11th day of Aug't., 1802 but which was afterwards rejected by the Government of Spain.

To the latter injury the sensibility was diminished by the cession made of Louisiana by France in the following year. But in that transaction Spain had no merit, nor has she made any reparation for the injury proceeding from herself and which preceded the cession.

Since that event the Spanish Government has manifested a continuation of the same unfriendly disposition towards this country. By the treaty of Saint Ildefonso (October 1st, 1800) Louisianna was receded to France in terms which evidently comprized West Florida, and by the treaty of 1803 France ceded to the U. S. in the same extent in which they had received it. It is distinctly understood had France retained the province that she would have claimed as being within its limits the whole territory between Perdido on the east and the river Bravo on the west, and that Spain would have acquiesced in those limits. Against the U. S. however her government has set up very different pretensions. It has insisted that west Florida on the Eastern and a vast extent of territory on the western side of the Mississippi Eastward of the Rio Bravo formed no part of the province as ceded to the United States.

Anxious to adjust all these differences amicably, this Government has set on foot several negociations in which the most liberal conditions have been offered to Spain. In a compromise of their respective claims to territory, an offer was made in 1805 to the Spanish Government, in consideration of a cession to be made by it of the territory belonging to Spain Eastward of the Mississippi, to cede a large tract of country west of that [country] river, and to make such an estimate of the relative value of the territory so ceded by each party, as that the United States should be bound to pay, for a like sum acknowledged to be due by them to Spain, the sum which on a fair liquidation should appear to be due by her, to citizens of the United States. This proposition was rejected in every part the Spanish Government refusing to make any indemnity for injuries or to admit any boundary, which it did not dictate.

Prior to the negociation of 1805, the United States had just cause of war against Spain but after its failure their abstaining from it could only be imputed to a sensibility to the situation of the Spanish Monarchy. Other powers would probably have seized the opportunity not simply to assert their rights and secure an indemnity for their wrongs, but availing themselves of the defenceless situation of the Spanish Provinces and disregarding the limit of a just redress, have taken possession of those most contiguous and expelled the authorities of Spain from the rest. The United States have pursued a very different policy towards Spain. It was not until very lately that they took possession of West Florida to the Perdido which belonged to them and as yet they have taken no step whatever on the principle of indemnity.

The connection which was formed some years past between the Spanish Cortes & the British Government, with its bearing on the United States, did not escape their attention. The hostility of the former was well known, and that of the latter more than suspected. There was much cause to apprehend that the British Government would under the pretext of aiding Spain take possession of East Florida and endeavour to retain it. To guard against such a disaster proceeding from any foreign power, a law was passed in 1805, authorizing the President in case there should be evident danger of such an event to take possession of the Province by the troops of the United States. The danger of British encroachments on that quarter were increased by the war, and the pernicious effects which would result from them great and certain. With the insurrection which took place in West Florida and the causes which finally induced the United States to take possession of it you are already acquainted as you are with those occurrences relating to East Florida which is still retained by the Spanish authorities. Referring to the documents which illustrate fully all these transactions, I have thought it sufficient to present to your view the permanent features of them only.

The Special object of your agency to Cadiz, will be to impress the Regency with a just idea of the friendly policy which has been invariably pursued by the government of the United States towards Spain, under circumstances that were calculated to produce a different result and of their disposition to persevere in that policy; if the Regency by maintaining as it has hitherto done, the unjust system of the former government, does not prevent it. The question in regard to West Florida is settled. There can be no further discussion on that point nor can the U. S. suffer East Florida to pass into the possession of Great Britain or of any other power, as it would give to such power especially to Great Britain the means of annoying them thro' the war in their most vital interests. It would be difficult for the United States to preserve peace with any power, however well disposed, holding that province for any length of time, from the important relation it bears to the commerce & welfare of so many states. The United States have therefore been desirous of acquiring it by amicable arrangement and have still the same desire. Possessing it at a fair equivalent satisfying at the same time the just claims of our citizens, all cause of future controversy would be removed. Whatever may be the future relation of Spain to her [colonies] Provinces in America the friendship between the United States and Spain might be preserved.

It is presumed that it is eminently the interest of Spain to cultivate the friendship of the United States. The policy of her former government furnishes an instructive lesson to the present one. The right of the United States to the free Navigation of the Mississippi, was denied by it and resisted until they were prepared and resolved to take it by force. To avert this danger the Spanish Gov't. recognized the right and regulated its use by a treaty bearing date in 1795. That arrangement tho' far from being liberal preserved (notwithstanding the spoliations on our commerce) a good intelligence between the parties until it was violated in 1802 by the suppression of the deposit at New Orleans. In the interval the U. S. did no injury to Spain nor did they give her any cause of offense. These facts show how highly sensible they are to the manifestation of an amicable policy in any other power. Had the former government of Spain [in 1795] declined the treaty of 1795 and continued to resist the right of the United States to the free navigation of the Mississippi can any one doubt that the consequences of such resistance would have produced war or what the consequences of that war would have been? Can any one doubt should the Regency at Cadiz continue to resist the just claims of the United States, what will be the result of such a policy? Possessing so many and such vast provinces to the South, as Spain does, all of which it is in the power of the United States to separate from her, is it for her interest to expose herself to that danger by persevering in injustice? The President indulges the hope that you will be able, by your communications to convey to the Regency, a just view of the conduct of the United States, in all their transactions relating to Spain, since the treaty of 1795, and of their present friendly policy, and induce that body to adopt a similar policy towards them.

In the contest which has existed several years for the Spanish Monarchy, the United States have taken no part, nor will they do it nor in any other manner compromit themselves. In their intercourse with Spain and her Provinces they have [they have] managed their concerns with the persons in power in each part, without enquiring from whom they derived their authority. The Spanish provinces in America adhere to and acknowledge the Regency. With the Regency therefore the United States are disposed in what concerns their welfare to communicate informally and to promote a good understanding. From it the President is willing to accept the Territory claimed by Spain & held by the Regency Eastward of the Mississippi, in discharge of the claims of the United States to indemnity or he will receive possession of & hold it in trust subject to future negociation & adjustment. The effect of such an informal arrangement would be the same as if it were done by treaty. Peace would be preserved between the two countries on conditions satisfactory to both. The United States being thus secured against an imminent danger against which they cannot otherwise be secured pending the war, would cultivate that relation by all the acts belonging to a friendly policy. It will be easy to execute this arrangement. On receiving from the Regency an order to the Spanish Governor at St Augustine to deliver East Florida to the United States you may give assurances that it will be received either in discharge of the claims to indemnity or in trust as above stated as the case may be, which will be repeated in writing to the Governor on the delivery of the Province.

It is expected that you will soon be able to ascertain whether this arrangement will be entered into by the Regency, & in consequence what its real policy is towards the United States. Information has been received from authority deserving attention that the Regency has sold the Floridas to Great Britain for two million sterling. If this is true it will leave little doubt of its policy or of the obligation imposed by it on the United States. It is important to know the truth of the report and of the disposition of the Regency towards this country.

Many facts have been disclosed relative to the improper conduct of the Chevalier Onis. Of his hostility to the United States and endeavours to embarrass their affairs the evidence is conclusive. Indeed in one instance it is of a nature essentially to compromit him, and serious notice would have been taken of it, had it not been prevented by a sensibility to the situation of Spain. I send you a copy of the document that you may know the precise nature of his offense. Other examples might be enumerated. The following deserves particular attention. Tho' not recognized by this government as a minister because the United States would not recognise either of the parties contending for the Spanish Monarchy pending the contest he has nevertheless assumed that character by issuing papers and granting documents which would have been very improper in a minister. Under these circumstances the moderation of this government towards him has been signally evinced yet it has not produced its merited effect. It is understood that in his communications to the Regency he has with a hostile spirit, misrepresented all the acts of the United States relating to Spain. It is proper that his government should be apprized of these [points] facts that it may ascribe to the true cause any steps that it may be necessary to take hereafter in regard to him.

It is advisable that your communications with the Regency should be oral and not written as far as may be practicable, & when written you will keep in mind that they cannot be official on your part. I enclose you a letter addressed to yourself which you may shew as the ground of your authority to communicate with that body.

As your agency is intended to promote a good understanding with the Regency by giving explanations where they may be necessary relative to the conduct and views of the United States, in the mode and for the purposes above stated, it will be temporary and it is hoped that it may not be of long continuance. Your own observations will enable you to communicate to this department useful information on the point. Your compensation will be at the rate of three thousand five hundred dollars per annum to commence on the day you left home

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for this city to cease when you may leave Cadiz on your return. The expense of your voyage [there] will be defrayed out of your salary; for your return, after the ceasing of your salary, you will be allowed one-fourth of the above mentioned sum.

I have the honor to be
Respectfully, Sir,
Your obedient servant
(Signed) JAS. MONROE.

To ANTHONY MORRIS, Esq.,
&c.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE.
October 11, 1814.

SIR

Mr. Erving having been appointed Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States to Spain, it is no longer necessary for you to remain in that country.

You will be pleased to repair to Madrid, if this letter should not find you there, and deliver to him the papers in your possession, connected with the public business committed to you, including, as well, copies of your communications to this Department, as the papers which you received from it. In doing this, I am sure you will take pleasure in giving him any information you may have collected relative to the state of affairs in Spain.

It gives me much pleasure to inform you, that your conduct has been entirely satisfactory to the President, who authorizes me to state, that in addition to your salary while employed in the public service, you will be allowed three months salary as an equivalent for your expenses in returning home.

I have the honor to be,
Sir,
Your most ob't serv't.
(Signed) JAS. MONROE.
ANTHONY MORRIS, Esq.

Notes.

In October next the Macmillan Co. will begin publication of four quarterly volumes of an 'Encyclopædia Biblica,' edited by the Rev. T. K. Cheyne and J. Sutherland Black, assisted by seventy of the leading living Biblical critics and scholars. Other and earlier publications by this firm will be new editions of 'Alice in Wonderland' and 'Alice through the Looking-glass,' with new prefaces by the late author; 'The Development of the Child,' by Nathan Oppenheim, M.D.; 'A Text-book of Botany,' from the German of Dr. E. Strasburger and others, by Dr. H. C. Porter of the University of Pennsylvania; and 'The General Manager's Story,' by Herbert E. Hamblen.

The light and airy tone of the preface to 'Chambers's Biographical Dictionary,' edited by David Patrick, LL.D., and Francis Hindes Groome (Philadelphia: Lippincott), is hardly becoming to so grave a work, which has, nevertheless, been executed seriously and carefully, with a due sense of proportion. Errors we have noticed, and omissions which might be contrasted with admissions, in the same grade of distinction; but not to an extent that should impair our welcome to this close-packed volume. Its pretensions to being up to date are well justified, and most of the younger reputations in belles-lettres will be found here, from Stevenson to Kipling, from Du Maurier to "Ian Maclaren," from Sienkiewicz to Alice Meynell, from Linley Sambourne to Aubrey Beardsley and Joseph Pennell. Ibsen and Sudermann lack the companionship of Hauptmann. Napoleon alone surpasses Gladstone in allotted space. The American field is fairly covered. The bibliographical directions are an excellent feature, and so is the pronunciation of the more difficult names. Finally, a list of pseudonyms and of works for which the author might be sought is, if by no means exhaustive, useful as far as it goes. There are a thousand pages in double columns.

Students of language may be glad to know that the Holland professor Uhlenbeck of Amsterdam has rendered his serviceable Dutch treatise on Sanskrit philology more easily accessible to scholars by giving out an English translation of it, under the title, 'A Manual of Sanskrit Phonology, in comparison with the Indogermanic Mother-Language, for Students of Germanic and Classical Philology.' The manual makes a handy volume of a hundred or more pages; it is published by the enterprising young firm of Luzac & Co., London, and it is welcome.

Nearly all the modern works on Japan lack depth and perspective. It is refreshing to find a work which treats with competency and clearness of the archipelago, its people, and their neighbors from the stone age until near that of the Murata rifle and torpedo-boats. Such a work is 'Nippon: Archiv zur Beschreibung von Japan,' by Philipp Franz von Siebold and, in continuation, by his sons (Wurzburg and Leipzig: Leo Woerl). Students of Japan are familiar with the bulky and costly 'Archiv' which has been accessible in libraries for nearly half a century. These two volumes in German, finely illustrated, form an excellent condensation of the 'Archiv,' and show the steady evolution of Japanese civilization, and the enormous debt of the islanders to both their Oriental neighbors and to Europe, especially the Netherlands. A biographical sketch of Siebold, his travels from Batavia and in Japan, in 1826, during the Shogunate, is added.

'Le Bilan Littéraire du Dix-neuvième Siècle,' by Georges Meunier (Paris: Charpentier), is an attempt to estimate the value of the literature of the epoch now closing. In a measure it recalls Pellissier's excellent work on 'The Literary Movement in France in the Nineteenth Century,' without coming up to it in value or weight. There are interesting pages in the book and some judicious appreciation of individual authors, but nothing strikingly original in the judgments of schools or in the views of the causes at work during the century. Perhaps the most attractive part is that devoted to the study of Naturalism and its effects. According to M. Meunier, this is the doctrine which will color the literature of the coming years; science being destined to enter more and more largely into letters, greatly to their advantage.

'Rachel et Samson' (Paris: Paul Ollendorff) is a somewhat disappointing book, though it does contain much interesting information concerning the great actress and her relations with the equally great teacher who discerned so clearly her wonderful histrionic gifts. That Rachel owed her success to Samson is known; that she behaved ungratefully towards him is known also, but that she could not have attained later to success without being constantly guided by him is not to be easily believed. Yet this is what Mme. Samson would have us think. She is more readily credited when she lays the blame for the quarrel upon the mercenary father of Rachel.

In a pamphlet, 'Der Universitätsunterricht und die Erfordernisse der Gegenwart' (Berlin: Calvary & Co.), Dr. Ernst Bernheim, Professor of History in the University of Greifswald, presents some of the good and bad features of German academic instruction in a clear and forcible manner. The organization and development of the German university on traditional lines inadequately provide for the recent enormous growth of special knowledge, so unfavorable to the broad and general culture which it was the original aim of such an institution to impart; but the remedies proposed for this defect involve the danger of dissolving the university into a set of professional schools designed solely to promote "education for practical life." Prof. Bernheim protests against this pseudo-reform, and thinks the difficulty can be met without such a radical change. Owing to the marvellous progress of technical instruction during the past forty years in the fatherland of philosophies and phenomenologies, Germany has entered into earnest commercial and industrial competition with other nations in the marts of the world, so that the export of metaphysical systems "made in Germany" is now being rapidly superseded by manufactures bearing the same label. *Lernfreiheit* offers as great advantages to students as *Lehrfreiheit* does to professors, but presupposes a lively sense of duty, love of learning, maturity of judgment, and a certain force of character in the young men who are to enjoy and profit by it. The one thing needful is less passive receptivity and more active individual investigation. Very suggestive are the remarks on private lectures, seminaries, and other forms of academical instruction. The report of Prof. Conrad Halle on American universities and the superiority of their courses of study in some respects is cited.

The second publication of the Nantucket Historical Association consists of the Timothy White Papers (1725-1755), edited by the Rev. Myron Samuel Dudley. The Rev. Timothy White was a Harvard graduate of the class of 1720, a native of Haverhill, Mass., and connected by marriage with the Gardner family of Nantucket, where his pastorate covered the period bracketed above. His editor sets forth what is known of previous efforts to evangelize the Indians of the island, as well as to furnish religious teaching to the white settlers. Mr. White's journal and account-books as school-teacher and trader give this pamphlet a genealogical value. A few letters are appended, and there is a photographic frontispiece showing the Old North vestry. The Papers may be had of Miss Susan E. Brock, Nantucket, or of Littlefield, Boston.

Popular errors die hard, especially when they are picturesque. *Literature* (March 19, p. 304) can still speak, in a paragraph on New England Puritanism, of "that blasted fatal bough that bore the hanged Quaker *and burnt the witch*"; and again, "The folk of Miss Wilkins still possess *the faggot for the witch*, but the faggot serves to cook hot biscuit." But *Literature* would be unable to tell when and where in New England either the bough or the faggot burnt the witch.

The *National Geographic Magazine* for March contains illustrated accounts of dwellings of the saga-time in Iceland, Greenland, and Vineland, by Miss C. Horsford, and of a voyage up the Kuskokwim in Alaska by two Moravian missionaries in 1885. The frontispiece is a portrait of the new President of the National Geographic Society, Prof. Alex. Graham Bell.

The *Annales de Géographie* for March opens with a suggestive article by the edi-

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tor, M. Vidal de la Blache, on political geography, with special reference to the works of Prof. F. Ratzel. There are also articles on the geological structure of the lands bordering on the Ægean, and on the climate of the Australian desert, and a comparative view, with charts, of the density of population in France in the years 1801, 1846, and 1896.

The principal contents of *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, No. 2, are articles upon the geology of Java and upon the native races of Formosa and the Loochoo Islands. One may read, besides, of an exploration of the Capim River in Pará. A description of the Bay of Kiao-chau is accompanied by a reproduction of a Japanese map of the peninsula, showing both the territory leased to Germany and that under German influence. A useful survey of the progress of railway construction in all parts of "savage" Africa is to be found in the monthly report.

On the 28th of January, 1892, on the occasion of the combined celebration of the anniversaries of the birth of Frederick II. and of William II., Du Bois-Reymond delivered before the Royal Academy of Sciences an address on Maupertuis (published in the then current *Rundschau*). At that date the correspondence between the philosopher and Frederick, appended to La Beaumelle's 'Vie de Maupertuis,' had for good reasons to be set down as untrustworthy. Since then, however, the original and authentic letters, which La Beaumelle had copied and falsified, have been transferred from the private collection of Feuillet de Conches to the Prussian archives, whose director, Dr. Reinhard Koser, is at present engaged in preparing them for publication. The correspondence begins in 1738 with a letter from Frederick, then living as Crown Prince at Rheinsberg, and covers the whole period to Maupertuis's death in 1759. It consists of 176 letters, about half of which are from the King. Extracts from these letters are interspersed in the address on "Maupertuis and Frederick the Great" delivered by the present secretary of the Berlin Academy, Prof. Hermann Diels, on January 27 last, at the same place and on the same occasion as Du Bois-Reymond's six years ago. These fragments, few and brief as they are, leave no doubt of the extraordinary interest attaching to the letters, which, one readily believes, "will add to the character of the great King many brilliant and noble traits." Prof. Diels is a classical scholar and philologian, but this does not prevent him from giving in his address (see the *Rundschau* for March) an interesting and sympathetic account of the early successes and subsequent disappointments of the ambitious French mathematician and philosopher, and of the affectionate relations between him and his master, the heroic and sentimental King.

The tenth report of Mr. Robert T. Swan, Massachusetts Commissioner of Public Records, shows a gratifying progress in legislation favorable to his steady application on behalf of these long neglected documents. To this legislation general attention may be directed, as also to a new and efficient "Act relative to the registry and return of births, marriages, and deaths." Many old records have, by general advertisement, been recovered. Some towns and cities are printing their earliest. The bulk of the report consists of a noteworthy list, with historical data, of churches, parishes, precincts, and religious societies, present and past, in Massachusetts, arranged geographically. The Baptist, Congregational, Methodist Episcopal, Protestant Episcopal, Unitarian, and Universalist alone are considered. The Roman Catholics "have no form of organization necessary for the business transactions which are a part of the life of other denominations." Mr. Swan is sure that a very large percentage of so-called church organizations "would find it impossible to take action in business matters that could not be set aside for irregularity or illegality." Apropos of the famous Dedham case, in 1820, which led to the succession of Unitarian to Congregational church rights, Mr. Swan notices a suit now pending in Lowell between two churches of these denominations for possession of a meeting-house by legal succession. The Commissioner invites corrections and additions to his very valuable list, compiled out of chaos.

"Hawaiian Skulls" is the subject of the last memoir contributed by the lamented Dr. Harrison Allen, to the Transactions of the Wagner Free Institute of Science of Philadelphia. The distinction between the social classes of the ancient Hawaiians seems to have extended to their methods of burial. The remains of chiefs and nobles were interred in lava-caves and subterranean caverns, while those of common people were placed in superficial graves near the coast. The cave skulls are, as a rule, free from disease, but commonly show defective nutrition. The coast skulls are of a lower structural type, and show a greater variety of diseased action. The author believed that "the differences between the crania are not due to race but to methods of living, and in some degree to differences of mental strength in individuals." Dr. D. G. Brinton, in a prefatory note, calls attention to the novel graphic method devised by Dr. Allen (called by him the "terrace" method), which is published for the first time in this memoir.

The Maryland Geological Survey has published the first volume of its Reports under the direction of Prof. William Bullock Clark, State Geologist. This introductory volume contains a preliminary account of the physiography, geology, and natural resources of the State. To this are appended a bibliography and a cartography of Maryland, by Dr. E. B. Mathews, and a report upon magnetic work, by Dr. L. A. Bauer. The book is attractive in appearance, and is furnished with excellent illustrations and maps. Volume two of these reports, which will contain a description of the building and decorative stones of the State, is in preparation.

In saying last week that the "Psychological Index" just issued took up the entire March issue of the *Psychological Review*, we overlooked the fact that the index is a supplement, and that the regular March number of the *Review* was issued as usual besides. It contains the notable address, on "The Psychology of Invention," delivered at the Ithaca meeting of the Psychological Association last December by Professor Royce; the detailed proceedings of the same meeting, an interesting discussion of "Physical and Mental Tests," by Professors Jastrow, Baldwin, and Cattell, together with the usual quota of signed book-reviews and notices. The editors of the *Review* are also publishing a series of longer "Monograph Supplements," of which Nos. 5 and 6 have appeared in the last three months—"Problems in the Psychology of Reading," by J. O. Quantz, and "The Fluctuation of Attention," by J. P. Hylan.

A short article in a recent number of the *Berlingske Tidende* of Copenhagen, by the well-known Danish specialist, Dr. E. Ehlers, gives an interesting account of the work on the new lepers' hospital for Iceland. As was announced earlier in these columns, the building has been constructed in Norway, whence it was to have been shipped last month. The hospital will be opened July 24, although the whole amount necessary to meet the expenses (some $35,000) has not yet been raised. In view of the fact that, without isolation, the present annual increase of lepers in Iceland is about twenty, the committee feel that further delay would be little short of criminal. Dr. Ehlers states that in the Norwegian asylums the average time of treatment, before death comes to the relief of the sufferer, is 4.2 years. If this rate obtain in the Icelandic hospital (and there is no reason to suppose that it will vary greatly), there will be an entirely new set of patients about four years after the opening, and, with the present accommodation of seventy, it will, under the present conditions, take only about twenty years to root out the disease entirely.

The American Association for the Advancement of Science will celebrate in Boston, on August 22-27, its fiftieth anniversary. The Boston local committee has Gov. Wolcott for its honorary president. A great simultaneous gathering in Boston of the American Forestry Association, the American Geological Society, the American Chemical Society, the American Mathematical Society, the Society of Economic Entomologists, the Society for the Promotion of Agricultural Science, the Society for Promoting Engineering Education, and others, will give éclat to the occasion. The sessions will be held at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, which is the address of Prof. H. W. Tyler, the local secretary for all correspondence. The Association will be the guest of Harvard College for a day, of the Essex Institute at Salem for another; and sundry other excursions — to the White Mountains, to Cape Cod—are contemplated. A large increase in membership is desired and anticipated.

The centenary celebration in honor of Amerigo Vespucci and of Toscanelli, the astronomer, cartographer, and correspondent of Columbus, will be inaugurated at Florence on April 28 by the unveiling of two commemorative statues of these famous Florentines by the King of Italy. There will also be an exhibition of valuable unpublished documents relating to their services in connection with the discovery of America.

—The Rev. E. E. Hale has often displayed his indifference to historical accuracy, but has seldom surpassed it as exhibited in the anecdotic biography of the poet Lowell which is appearing in the *Outlook*. The chapter published in the April number gives a readable account of the literary conditions in 1842-43, with a glance at the later career of the persons named, but the writer's errors are more amusing than his facts. For Dr. George B. Loring he invents a military career, remarking of him that he was "distinguished as a general in the war," and afterwards speaking of him as "General" Loring. Of his own brother Nathan he writes that "he made a negotiation with Duyckinck and 'Harry Franco' . . . by which their short-lived ma-

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gazine [*Arcturus*] was transferred to him." Franco (C. F. Briggs) had nothing to do with this periodical; Mr. Hale means Cornelius Mathews. As an excuse for the fashion plates in the Boston *Miscellany*, we read that "there was no class of readers who could sustain creditably a purely literary magazine. The rate at which the poor *Knickerbocker* was [in 1842] expiring was evidence of this." As the *Knickerbocker* was published without interruption till 1865, the duration of its death-agony "beats the record." Of Hawthorne we are told that "his stories in the *Democratic Review* of this time are attributed to Monsieur d'Aubépine." Some of Hawthorne's tales in the *Token* were so signed, but not those in the *Review*. Mr. Hale also remembers what "glee there was in the counting-room [of his brother's magazine] when it was announced that a thousand copies . . . had been sold in Lowell." Small wonder that such an incident made an impression which has lasted fifty years; such a sale in such a place might well cause amazement. So successful an editor would have been worth his weight in gold, yet we have before us a letter from the publisher, written June 13, 1842, in which the editorship is offered to another littérateur: "We are decidedly of the opinion," says the writer, "that a change of editor is nessessary for the permanent suxcess of the work." Of bibliographical interest is the statement concerning Lowell's 'Old [English] Poets' that "forty-eight editions have since been published"—interesting because the author never permitted its republication after 1846, and the only edition now before the public is an unauthorized one. The *Liberty Bell* Mr. Hale describes as "an anti-slavery journal," though it was published as a bound volume and but once a year, and not regularly at that.

—Conspicuous by its absence is the word *campus* in the Oxford Dictionary (volume 2, 1893). The word, meaning 'college grounds,' occurs in Webster and the Century of 1889 or 1890. The Oxford Dictionary, however, admits the word *campo*, "Obs. school slang," with this citation: "1612. Brinsley, *Lud. Lil.* 299. Without running out to the campo (as they terme it) at schoole times. *Ibid.* There is no day but they will all looke for so much time at the Campo." The omission of Campus in Dr. Murray's vocabulary, which is twice as extensive as Webster's, is a strong proof that the existing usage is an Americanism pure and simple. Indeed, the Century defines it as descriptive of the grounds of American colleges. So far as we can ascertain, Campus was a word unknown in all dictionaries prior to the Century and the last revision of Webster, and yet was current long before in American educational institutions. You will not discover it in Worcester of 1890 nor in any previous issue. It is natural to ask how long it has been in vogue, and when and where the usage originated. The only citation in any dictionary to prove the existence of the word is in the Standard Dictionary (1894-5), and consists in a sentence from the *Cosmopolitan* of April, 1890. The earliest appearance in the West of Campus as noted by the present writer was in the Racine (Wis.) *Mercury* of August 5, 1868. Its words were: "The college Campus has been mowed." An advent of the term in the East some ten years earlier is said to be shown in a class poem printed among Harvard songs, and commencing,

"When we first came on this Campus
We were freshmen green as grass."

Both these instances prove that Campus was then no stranger either East or West, but had already been so long hospitably received as to be adopted among household words.

—That story of the man who applied for a pension on the ground of having read all the war articles in the *Century*, proves that now and then a reader of wholesale propensity lingers among us. On the whole, the tendency is towards epitome, and we are therefore not shocked to find that Motley's 'Dutch Republic' is now considered too long. Mr. W. E. Griffis has abridged the three volumes (Harper & Bros.) into enough less than one to permit of a supplemental sketch which covers, in above 200 pages, the years 1584-1897. Motley took great pains with the collection of his data, but a vivacious style gave him his audience. We do not mean altogether to condemn Mr. Griffis's piece of work when we say that Motley would never have made his reputation by a history executed in the present wise. Assuming that he used proper proportions, a considerable reduction of scale destroys the artistic character of the whole, and turns what was once literature into a book of reference. Still, the 'Dutch Republic' contains material for a good compendium, and Mr. Griffis has taken all the space required to contain the important facts. In cheapness, clearness of print, and quality of illustration his abstract is worthy of praise. While we should have preferred to the portrait of Margaret of Parma, which he gives, that by Sanchez Coello, we discern in his selection a familiarity with pictures and prints and a personal knowledge of Holland. We have examined his own sequel to Motley with more care than we have paid to his synopsis. It is a sketch marked by signs of conscientious inquiry and yet bearing traces of the amateur in historical composition. Else why should he say, p. 766, "The old formula of mediæval Europe, *ejus regio cujus religio*, was still observed"? Gardner for Gardiner, and Netsu for Metsu, are probably misprints, but we can less easily forgive the statement that Paul Potter was "the painter of one of the four great world's pictures." In citing French words Mr. Griffis goes a little astray, both as to the accents and spelling. Moreover, his account of operations conducted by the National Convention against Holland is so concise that one would imagine Dumouriez and Pichegru to have been engaged in the same winter campaign of 1794-'95. In strictly Dutch affairs, however, Mr. Griffis is well grounded, and his outline of events since the death of William the Silent fits into its context very serviceably.

—Pennsylvania derives her entire revenue from other sources than the taxation of real estate, leaving this source of income to local communities exclusively. In addition to the ordinary expenses of the State Government, she distributes $5,500,000 to the local communities for public schools. We have already referred to a work explaining how she obtains income, by Frank M. Eastman, of the Auditor-General's staff, entitled 'Taxation for State Purposes in Pennsylvania' (Philadelphia: Kay & Brother). The arrangement of the matter is systematic. The legislative history of each existing tax, license, or other source of revenue, is given, the method of administering it is described, and the rulings of the courts upon it, if any, are summarized and the volumes referred to. Experience derived from the letters of inquiry received by the Auditor-General has taught Mr. Eastman what things the public want to know about, and he has aimed to supply all such information. The only thing that we miss which we should like to have is a tabular statement of the amount derived from each tax in an average year, or in the latest fiscal year. A chapter on local taxation, *i. e.*, taxation in counties, cities, boroughs, and townships, is added, giving an outline of the principles followed, not aiming, however, to deal with that subject thoroughly. Defects in the present laws of the State as revealed in practical administration form the concluding chapter. The book seems to us to be an admirable guide to legislatures in other States which are seeking to assimilate their own systems to that of Pennsylvania, and a valuable assistance to students of the science of taxation in general.

—Of great interest is the latest issue of the English Historical MSS. Commission, containing the MSS. of the Earl of Carlisle. One of that house, the fifth Earl, was on the reconciliation committee sent to America in 1778, and in his letters to his wife and friends we have a full account of the difficulties encountered in that ill-timed mission. Some of these invaluable records have been reproduced in Stevens's Facsimiles, but it is well to have them in a more accessible form. Although the Earl was only thirty years of age at the time of his visit to America, his papers are of a high quality, and his opinions, even in the face of disappointment, are balanced and moderate. Germain concealed from the commission the orders given to army and navy serving against the colonies, so that they found on arriving at Philadelphia the plan of campaign changed from an offensive to a defensive one, and such positive and repeated orders issued as must reduce to impotency the already much weakened military force. The appeals to Congress were made at a time when it was flushed by its treaty with France and the presence of a French fleet off the coast; it was useless, too, to expect success when the British army was leaving Philadelphia—a retreat. The letter to his tutor, Rev. Mr. Ekins, is a remarkable example of the Earl's ability to explain the failure of that commission. Nearly 100 pages of this volume are occupied with the letters and documents of this half-hearted effort to win the rebellious colonies by means other than arms. A record is made of the distribution of the manifesto and proclamation—ten English and five German copies going to Washington.

—On his return to England, the Earl continued for some time to receive "Intelligence" from America, but the most of it is from men firmly convinced that the war was nearly at an end, and Washington's army in its last ditch, as, indeed, it seemed to be. A recommendation to send out civil commissioners to govern the provinces as they should submit, was one of the more sanguine ideas communicated. More true were the predictions of disaster from the paper money, which now scarcely passed at all, being received only at twenty for one and rapidly falling in value. Naturally the quarrel in Congress over Deane, and the dif-

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ferences between Arnold and the Executive Council of Pennsylvania, were made much of, but the news was too strongly colored to be of real service. Yet the intelligencers were William Smith, Chief Justice of the Province, and Andrew Elliott, who wished to be the civil Governor of New York, men of more than average ability. Of secondary interest are the several hundred letters from George Selwyn, which do not bear out his reputation as a wit, and are for the most part dreary reading. Of politics he says almost nothing, but of personal matter he is overflowing—the society reporter of the day. As a picture of the social habits and customs, his record will stand high, but he will never enjoy even a small part of the popularity that "Horry" Walpole holds. The descriptions of Charles Fox and the rage for Pharoah (faro) should be read—Fox running a bank at one end of the street and the bailiffs levying an execution on his belongings at the other. The flavor of Selwyn's political interest may be judged by this extract: "I went from dinner yesterday to the House of Commons, and came just in time enough to be in a division upon some American question, God knows what." That was written in 1781.

THE GREEK TRAGIC DRAMA.

The Tragic Drama of the Greeks. By A. E. Haigh, M.A. With illustrations. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 1897.

Mr. Haigh's treatise is a natural sequel to his 'Attic Theatre,' which opportunely filled a niche in English classical scholarship and archæology that had stood waiting for many years. The general impression produced by it is that of good judgment and adequate information. Amid the bewildering richness of theories, he keeps a well-balanced and independent judgment; he rides no hobbies, and he avails himself with discretion of the excursions made by other people's hobbies. His work does not address itself to specialists alone; it is so framed that the very full citations from the Greek and the occasional technical discussions are relegated entirely to the footnotes. At the same time, both text and footnotes evince a comprehensive acquaintance with the enormous mass of research and speculation which has accumulated since the days of K. O. Müller and Donaldson and Patin.

It is now well understood that much of our modern drama—possibly even the Sanskrit—harks back to the Greek. The Greeks were practically the inventors of this literary form. They did not attain to it all at once—they built it, doubtless, on the ruins of many failures; but they brought it to perfection in a surprisingly short space of time, in the course of about fifty years from the early essays in Attica. If any one fancies this was a slight achievement on the part of those three Athenian playwrights who "knew to build the lofty rhyme," some reflection and study will change his opinion. It was, in fact, to be classed with the first scientific history, or with the earliest working-model of a democracy, both of which essays fell within the same fruitful period. Of all the wonders which resourceful man has devised, and which Sophocles names in his great ode in the "Antigone," not the least might be the superb contrivance and imagination of the drama which enshrines that meditative hymn in praise of civilization.

There is a strong temptation to compare a Greek play to the modern opera, and in some respects the comparison will hold; but the differences are as striking as the analogies. The scenic effect of a Greek play resembled in some respects that of an opera: there was music, there were costumes and the semblance of a ballet. But in the opera the music is a primary aim, an end in itself; in the Greek tragedy it is quite secondary and ancillary. The music is, in fact, the humble servant of the poetry. The great odes of Æschylus and Sophocles, which are an integral part of the action, and which called on the highest intelligence of the auditors, must have been "syllabled" to the slender and passionate accompaniment of the flute-notes. The audience could not afford to miss a word of such song—not a word was meant to be lost. In our opera the words are blocks to be draped and hidden with the music; the opera delights in vain repetition. Precisely the same thing happened in the decadence of the Greek stage, when the musicians became virtuosos, and Euripides wrote monodies to suit this virtuosity. Then came runs and trills, repetitions and prolongations of syllables, the operatic fustian travestied by Aristophanes in his delicious gallimaufry, which invokes the powers of heaven to witness the nocturnal robbery of a hen-roost.

There was, however, a legitimate kinship between the opera and the drama to this extent: the drama grew out of the song and dance of the dithyramb and the recitation of a coryphæus. To this germ may be traced many peculiarities of structure; from this origin, as a theme or motif, expand the wonderful symphonic effects which recent research has revealed so clearly. Since the play is built and developed from the balanced antistrophes of the dithyramb, it tends to preserve this balance in the dialogue as well as in the lyric songs. In rapid and heated discussion the speakers bandy line for line; in longer argument, they exchange discourses of nearly equal length. Did this balancing go further? Was there an exact mathematical responsion between the larger divisions or members of the play? Mr. Haigh, like Bergk and other cautious scholars, decides in the negative. It cannot be proved, it could not have been perceived by the theatre; and indeed we should be sorry to learn that the great masters condemned themselves to the fetters of such fantastic slavery. Such chains as they carried were golden and loosely worn as graceful ornaments.

More than this, the lyric and musical origin of the drama to which it was possible and natural always to revert, gave the poet certain privileges which Shakspere, if he did not miss, might at least occasionally have used with propriety and advantage. At any moment of passion, the ancient dialogue might break into a lyric form, with its special refined propriety of metre; at intervals of the highest excitement, the lyric utterance imposed itself on the chorus. The slightest varying shades of emotion found there their appropriate means of expression. Now there are scenes in "King Lear" and in "Romeo and Juliet" which, by common consent, are lyric rather than dramatic. These passages, in the hands of Sophocles or Euripides, would infallibly, according to the canons of the ancient drama, have found their rapturous or lofty expression in lyric songs. Nay, Shakspere himself betrays the necessity for such a relief in the snatches sung by the jester or by *Ophelia*.

In one respect at least, the ancient tragedians were freer than our playwrights. The breaks between the dialogue caused by the choral ode were the origin of our five-act division. But this particular number was an afterthought; in the beginning, neither the number nor the length of the "episodes" was fixed. The number varied from four to six, till with Euripides it tended towards five. The length varied according to the fancy or the will of the poet; he was under no compulsion to pad out the dialogue so as to attain a procrustean measure. As to "the unities of time and place," they really imposed on the playwright no such iron yoke as Horace and Boileau would have us believe. More recent and careful studies show this conclusively. The scene was occasionally changed, or a new scene was practically introduced by the device of a messenger to narrate distant occurrences. The shifting of time is sometimes masked by the interlude of a choral ode, as in the "Agamemnon"; for the same purpose, the interludes of Euripides are, says Croiset, "capable de tout."

One of the resources of the highest order of English poetry has always been its diction and vocabulary. In spite of the theories of Wordsworth—theories not borne out even in his own practice—the rarer geniuses have always sought words that are strange or rare or old, fraught with some far-brought expressiveness of association, to embroider or color the fabric of their poetic diction. French poetry has suffered from the lack of this; the verse of Pope and Dryden which lacks it most, is most pedestrian in tone and sentiment. This color and tone the Greek poets deliberately sought by the systematic creation of an appropriate vocabulary. The epic and the lyric poets at a very early day developed their diverse and conventional medium of expression; the dramatists, too, devised their own special language characterized by its due inheritance of associations and delicate proprieties. In their dialogue, it was a language slightly removed from the current form and syntax of the ordinary speech, redolent with some flavors of dignified archaism and slightly set apart, as the diction of King James's Bible is distinguished from that of our own day. But the noticeable point is that it hovered close to the purest and most elegant Attic speech of the day, on which it was based, and from which it continually drew freshness and grace and vigor. The dramatists did not forget that their personages were *talking;* they did not forget the conversation of the thoughtful and witty Athenian whose ease and good breeding and urbanity are not flattered out of all likeness by the opening scenes of the 'Phaedrus' and the 'Republic.' Toward this conversational tone and diction, their style tended steadily till it reached the inimitable charm and simplicity of Euripides. In Aristophanes and Menander, it has attained to the lively dialogue or the level tone of polite society. In this process, the tragedians gained what the French verse of the seventeenth century possessed—the merits of a spoken style. They gained this, but they preserved also, by virtue of an exquisite taste and a splendid poetic tradition, what Corneille and Racine never attained, what we, the fortunate inheritors of Spenser and Shakspere and Milton, can

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prize at its full value—the color, the richness, the poignant suggestiveness of a special poetic vocabulary.

In the Attic theatre there was a natural action and reaction. Poet and audience were *en rapport*. The poet taught his lesson or said his say; but never did playwright address himself to a keener-witted, juster set of listeners and critics. If we needed any proof of the quality of the "pit" at Athens, we have only to note the "Frogs" of Aristophanes, for the "Frogs" not only enshrines the wayward criticism of a master of his craft; it presupposes and postulates an audience competent to understand and enjoy literature and literary criticism. And this fact lets us into the secret of the *milieu* in which both tragedy and comedy sprang and flourished. "At Athens, as in France," says M. Brunetière in a recent article, "literature was in some sort a social institution"; the public and the literary workman were in the closest touch and partnership. No academy could have frowned more effectually on whims and oddities and individual eccentricity or affectation than that keen and impressionable public.

But they liked preaching from their tragedians. In their minds, the saying which Aristophanes puts in the mouth of Æschylus was not far from the truth: "Tragedy is a school of life for the older generation." In a later century they learned, too, to tolerate "art for art's sake." That kind of poetry came in the time of Theocritus and of Herodas. But the drama of the Periclean period is, in a high sense, like the plays of Shakspere, a school of morals, because it is "a criticism of life." It deals in a lofty way with all the problems of life, of destiny, and of religion. When it ventured across the limits of a plain moral purpose, when it brought a *Camille* upon the stage, and Euripides painted his *Phædra* with more fidelity to the symptoms of her passion than its consequences, Aristophanes (who sticks at nothing in his comedy) grows squeamish, and cries out that the proprieties of tragedy have been invaded: "Away with your courtesans and your realism," he cries to Euripides; "baseness and sensuality exist, but they ought to be kept in the background; the dramatist is the teacher of high ideals to grown-up men and women." However mixed the motives of so singular a censor of morals, the theatre, in this instance at least, supported him with its verdict, and Euripides wrote his recantation in a revised study of his "Phædra." But in his general indictment of the art of Euripides, the comedian failed so ludicrously, so egregiously, that it might have tickled his own sense of humor could he have foreseen the fiasco. The whole Hellenistic and Roman world went against him, in passionate admiration of the great innovator.

Between Æschylus and Euripides the drama had moved rapidly in an inevitable course. One of the results of modern study of this development, intelligently set forth by Mr. Haigh, is a much clearer understanding of the position and merits of the last of the great tragedians, of the inevitable tendencies which he represented, of the limits and disadvantages under which he worked, and which marred the artistic quality of his work. Custom and convention obliged him to bring the heroes and heroines of Homeric or earlier legend upon the stage, while his own genius and the tendencies in the air impelled him, under the masks of these familiar names, to reveal the flesh and blood, the men and women, he met with every day. At times they moved awkwardly trammelled by the costumes and the padding of an outgrown tradition. Hence that realism which, in spite of incongruities, was a stroke of genius and an inspired anticipation of the ideas of the modern world. Euripides was an observer, and had the insight to discover material for his tragedy and melodrama in his own democratic fellow-countrymen. His personages were no longer the royal or aristocratic type of heroic legend, but the actual figures of the middle class of Athens—its politicians, its commonplace women, with their pettiness and vulgarity, its nurses and gossips, its peasants, and even its slaves. They go about their ordinary tasks, they busy themselves with "pots and pans," with sweeping and washing; his princess *Electra* marries a laborer and lives in a cottage. He held the mirror up to this democratic society; and his townsmen, the "plain people," were delighted to see in it the reflection of themselves. He first condescended to explore the heart of woman and to sympathize with her lot. He committed a greater crime, in the eyes of Aristophanes: "He first dared to bring on the stage a woman in love." Worse than this, in his "Andromeda," he actually conceived the enormity of representing a young man and maiden in love with one another; and, strange to say, the people liked this risky experiment and found its unheard-of motif interesting. The play was pronounced beautiful, and was a favorite with Alexander the Great.

The women that the poet knew at Athens had the pettiness, the frailties, and the faults that were bred in this life of harem-like seclusion; and he touched these with the surgeon's knife. Yet he did not invent from the imagination solely his *Alcestis* and *Macaria*, or the enchanting prattle and the highbred heroism of his *Iphigenia*. We see no reason to concede to M. Decharme that such winning pictures are purely ideal creations of the poet, any more than his *Ion* and *Hippolytus*. His mind dwelt with delight amid such gracious images of purity and youth. If he painted the darker passions of jealousy and illegitimate love, yet his *Medea* and his *Phædra* have some saving graces, relentings, and qualms, and self-reproaches, which redeem them from the sordid types of a Herodas or a Zola.

In his humane thoughts for the slave and the oppressed, in his condemnation of war, in his large anticipation of a possible brotherhood of man, Euripides stood, if not alone, too nearly alone in his generation. In his rationalism he was a representative of the epoch of Thucydides and of the wave of Ionian thought, when most of the higher minds were sceptical, and of the lower were superstitious. The faith which could make high morality consist with the pagan pantheon—the faith of Pindar and Æschylus and Sophocles—was no longer possible to thinkers, though in truth these poets themselves had not scrupled to criticise, and to square traditions with their own notions of morality. Aristophanes, posing as a high-priest of orthodoxy and *laudator temporis acti*, could make his cry of atheist stick, could libel Socrates, and throw dust in the eyes of his theatre, as he managed to blind the judgment of scholars and critics down to Schlegel. But, as Mr. Haigh well remarks, he never blinded the poets—a Milton, a Goethe, or a Browning. It is a lesson in the history of thought to reflect that the scepticism of Euripides became orthodoxy with the Christian fathers; his plays became a storehouse of ethical sentiment and a model for the Christus Patiens. This means of course that he shared in the revolt of reasoned ethics against the blind conservatism of religious traditions, wherein he only carried to greater length a movement that was begun before. It does not mean that he utterly renounced and condemned the national religion. He was a reformer; but we have no sufficient evidence that his plays were dedicated to a secret crusade,—to sapping and mining so sly and Machiavellian that it has been hid from all the world except Dr. Verrall, that ingenious discoverer of "bird's milk" and kindred classical rarities. In this, as in many other matters, Mr. Haigh's judgment keeps a golden mean which commends itself to good sense and adheres strictly to facts.

To the originality and ingenuity of Euripides we moderns owe the earliest specimens of the complicated plot, the "peripetias" or surprises, the stage recognitions that are now so hackneyed but were then absolutely novel, or only faintly hinted at in the art of his predecessors. With his intimate knowledge of the stage, its "properties" and machinery, he sought "sensations," spectacular effects, and *coups de théâtre*. He pleased his audience with the display of deities *ex machina*, as he tickled their fancies with his ingenious and sophistical rhetorical duels. These encounters, which in Sophocles were subordinated to the ends of art, became on his stage an exhibition of rhetorical skill as attractive to the audience as the apparition of his deities. But the tendency of all these devices is towards degeneracy.

Mr. Haigh closes with a curious sketch of the consequences of this degeneracy, of the closing days of the drama when "it flickered down to brainless pantomime,

> 'And those gilt gauds men-children swarm to see.' "

Euripides still held the stage, as numerous inscriptions and anecdotes attest, till the third century of our era. He was not then banished by the Church or the Christian fathers. He gave way to more sensuous entertainments, the ballet, the harlequinade, and the pantomime. When we read that, for actresses in these, "little else was required but beauty and audacity," we seem to be rehearsing the history of our own stage and of its ebb-tide in the nineteenth century.

As to the Greek practice of excluding from its stage "the actual commission of atrocities," Mr. Haigh repeats the ordinary opinion (drawn first, perhaps, from Horace) that this avoidance was due to "a refinement of sentiment which regarded actual bodily violence as a sight too terrible for the feelings of the audience." They could look on *Agave* carrying the gory head of her son on a pike, or on *Clytæmnestra* brandishing her sword over her murdered husband, and "rejoicing in the gush of the blood as the cornland joys in the dew"; but their feelings would not endure the actual sight of the stroke. They could bear the prolonged spectacle of horrors when the deed was done, but they winced from the sight of murder in the doing. Now this very statement is enough to show that Mr. Haigh's explanation does not explain. Without any morbid thirst for horrors and "sensations," a Greek audience could certainly tolerate them when they

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formed a legitimate part of the action. Perhaps the most satisfactory explanation of this puzzling inconsistency is that the avoidance of representing the actual murder arose first from a religious scruple against defiling the sanctuary (for a theatre was a sanctuary of Dionysus) with mimicry of the deed. There are only two exceptions to this rule in extant dramas.

BLUNDERING IN THE INDEX.

The Comprehensive Subject-Index to Universal Prose Fiction. Compiled and arranged by Zella Allen Dixson, A.M., Associate Librarian of the University of Chicago. Dodd, Mead & Company. 1897. 12mo, 421 pp.

No reference book is free from errors, but we think this will take the lead for carelessness and ignorance. To say that there are blunders on every page is to state the case inadequately, and that these are often due to negligence is proved by the fact that the incorrectness of the classification in a given case is often shown by some other title on the same page. As regards common blunders, it appears, from several entries, that 'St. Leon' was written not by William (but by Caleb Williams) Godwin (pp. 36, 57, 181, etc.); that the author of the 'Partisan Leader' was plain Beverley—not Beverley Tucker (p. 366); that the English writer for boys is not Stables but Stabbles (p. 7); that an American writer of the same sort of books is Mary Bunce (p. 15) instead of Mary Brush, as the name is generally written; that a popular Austrian novelist is named Sachermasoch (p. 33); that the early German writer is named Grummelshausen (p. 120), and that 'John Inglesant' is by the notorious J. H. Ingraham (p. 48). Various books concerning Shakspere are credited to Folk (instead of Folkstone) Williams (pp. 89, 98, 106, 119, 356-7); Gutzkow is spelled Gutzhow (p. 140), and Jensen Jessen (p. 178), while the pseudonym of a third is given as George Samaron (for Gregor Samarow, p. 188). On page 122 two books with the same title are entered, one by "W. Alexsis" and the other by H. Haering, but the reader is not warned that the books are the same—Alexis being Haering's pseudonym. Lady Gordon is given as the author of a book by Wailly (pp. 220, 222); and to Mrs. Phelps Ward are credited her mother's 'Sunnyside' and 'Peep at No. 5.' We learn, also, that a novel called 'Trilby,' the history of which is fairly well known, is a translation (pp. 208, 293), as is also a book by one J. H. Mancur, a New York writer of fifty years back.

When we examine the classification the results are equally surprising: Thackeray's 'Four Georges' (pp. 107, 130, etc.), Daudet's 'Trente Ans,' and Miss O'Meara's account of Mme. Mohl and her friends (pp. 170, 279), it seems, are all novels. So, also, is "Edmond Alton's" book about government (p. 303). The 'Jungle Book' is entered under Allegories. Under Abbey, real and imaginary abbeys are entered in the same alphabet, as "*Melrose:* Monastery [by] Sir Walter Scott; *Nightmare:* Nightmare Abbey [by] Thomas Love Peacock." The same method is followed under Castle, the titles being divided into "General and Imaginary" on the one hand, and such real structures as "Castle Daly" on the other. There are no references under Greek Church, but we find Potapenko's 'Russian Priest' under Catholicism. Dumas's 'Black Tulip' (Holland) is found under France; while Ebers's story of the siege of Leyden is entered under Germany. Werner's 'Hermann,' a tale of contemporary life, is put under Legends and Hermann, called by the Romans Arminius. 'The Hoosier Schoolmaster' is, despite its local title, found under Illinois, instead of Indiana, which loses also Eggleston's 'Roxy,' so that it has only two titles to thirteen for Illinois. Kipling's 'Light that Failed,' of which the scene is wholly in London, is entered under India. 'The Last Athenian,' according to Mrs. Dixson (p. 226), was an inhabitant of Italy in the seventh century, instead of Athens in the fourth, as the author would have us believe. Miss Yonge's 'Caged Lion,' who died 1437, is put under *James I., "1603-'25."* Cooper's "Pathfinder," our compiler thinks, was Paul Jones, who, it may be remembered, was a salt-water hero, while Leather-Stocking in this book resolutely declines to go near that element. Thomas Didymus, otherwise one of the twelve apostles, is classed (p. 244) as an English hero. 'Gaut Gurley; or, The Trappers of *Umbagog*' is put under Massachusetts, to make up for which Dr. Holmes's novels are omitted. They are also wanting in the New England list. The time of a book relating to the storming of the Alamo (1836) is said (p. 400) to be the eighteenth century, and the book itself (p. 268) to be concerned with "early Catholic missions in Florida"; on page 263 it is classed with novels on the Mexican war, "1845." Miss Pool's 'Dike Shanty,' a clever description of life on the low lands at Marshfield, Mass., is placed under North Carolina, and 'Guenn' under Paris, as well as under Paris Student Life, where is not the most famous of such books, Mürger's 'Vie de Bohême.' Under Pennsylvania we do not find Bayard Taylor's excellent 'Story of Kennett,' but encounter 'In the [Mohawk] Valley,' which belongs under New York. 'The Cloister and the Hearth' figures under Reformation, England; 'Redgauntlet' under Rebellion of 1745. Under Revolution, 1775-"89," we find 'The Bow of Orange Ribbon' (time 1756), 'The Cabin Book' (1846-'47), 'The Choir Invisible' (1795), 'The Conspirator' and 'The Rivals' (1806), 'Inez, a Tale of the Alamo' (1836), and De Forest's 'Overland' (1850). Some works of little merit, and not generally known, like Cooper's 'Pilot,' are missing. Under Salem we find 'Spectre of the Forest; or, Annals of the Housatonic,' but not 'House of the Seven Gables.'

Mrs. Dixson's reconstruction of biography and geography is equally radical. Thus, the heading Napoleon I. is accompanied by the descriptive note "Reigned 1799-1814." The father is naturally followed by the son, and we learn that "Napoleon II. Reigned 1848-51," though other authorities say he died in 1832. The great civil war of Great Britain, we are told on p. 64, began in 1625, our "French and Indian" wars in 1756, and the Mexican war in 1845. A book dealing with Kett's insurrection in 1549 is here entered (p. 216) as "Ker. 1708." Three novels whose scene is Austrian Poland are put under Spain (pp. 172, 380), as is also Hauff's 'Lichtenstein.' We learn, p. 201, that Henry IV. of France married Bertha of Susa, though the lady antedated him by five centuries. To balance this, Mrs. Dixson takes from him the damsel who, according to Zschokke, was his first love, and puts her under Henry IV. of England. The "Battle of Dorking" is treated as a real event of the war of 1870 (pp. 149, 167). Hadrian flourished in the second century *before* Christ (p. 21), Arius and Catiline in the first, St. Sebastian in the fifth, century after, according to the chronology of this volume. 'Lorna Doone' is called 'A Romance of Exmore'; the date of 'Kenilworth' is given as 1265, and Henry James's story of fashionable life called 'The Siege of London' is assigned to the year 994, when the kings of Denmark and Norway are recorded to have devastated Southern England. But while titles are slavishly followed in some cases, in others the information conveyed in them is ignored, as in the 'Blockade: An Episode of the Fall of the First Empire,' which is set down under 1870, and in the 'Maid of Stralsund: A Tale of the Thirty Years' War,' found under 1715. The compiler has evidently heard that Quebec was besieged in 1759, and therefore puts under this date Ingraham's 'Burton,' though the siege there described is that of 1775. Mrs. Child's 'Rebels' is credited to the seventeenth century.

We have referred to a few of the omissions, but these are so numerous that columns would be needed to do them justice. We find no mention of 'Don Quixote' or 'Gil Blas,' under Adventures, or Spain, or elsewhere. 'Wilhelm Meister' is likewise absent, though one would expect to find it under both Germany and Theatrical Life. A. Trollope's admirable Barchester Series is not under England, or Politics (English), or Ministers (to which there is no cross-reference from Clergy); Mrs. Oliphant's long list is likewise conspicuous only by its absence; and neither England nor English History shelters 'John Halifax, Gentleman.' Books familiar to so many thousands of schoolgirls as 'Picciola' and 'Corinne' are nowhere named. 'Consuelo' is not under Italy or Venice, but a book called 'Vittoria coronna' is supposed to give useful information concerning the history of the nineteenth century. One would have thought that Auerbach's novels were sufficiently known to merit inclusion under Germany. Cooper's 'Spy' is not mentioned under Washington, but his 'Lionel Lincoln,' in which the General does not figure, is. Under Agnosticism we miss 'We Two' and Mallock's amusing 'New Republic,' and, in connection with Altruism, 'Ideala.' In Ancient History is not to be found 'Salammbô,' or 'Marius the Epicurean,' or 'Fabiola,' or Tolstoi's 'Work While Ye Have the Light.' Under Connecticut are only four titles—all third-rate books—while the novels of Mrs. Stowe, D. G. Mitchell, and Mrs. Rose Terry Cooke are excluded. Under Dogmas one discovers neither 'John Ward' nor 'Robert Elsmere,' but that profound religious thinker "L. Mühlbach" is represented, as well as various writers we never heard of. Under England (manners, etc.) are none of the novels of Thackeray, Dickens, Meredith, Miss Austen, Reade, or the Brontës; nor is 'Villette' under Belgium (which is not deemed worthy of a heading) or Netherlands. There is no rubric for Communities, in default of which we looked (in vain) under Socialism for 'The Blithedale Romance.' Nor is there any caption such as Christian Life or Religious Life for books like 'Joshua Davidson' and 'A Singular Life'; and, failing a department for the Literary Life or Profession, there is no specific place for 'Pendennis' or 'The Literary Shop.' Under France (manners, etc.) is nothing by Balzac, George Sand, Theuriet, or Daudet; and only one of their novels under Paris. Under Napoleon III. are two of Zola's, but none of Daudet's. From Ger-

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many are excluded the novels of "Marlitt" and "Werner," as well as 'The Initials,' 'Greifenstein,' 'Dr. Claudius,' 'Prince Otto,' and 'The First Violin.' Equally noticeable are the omissions under Italy and Russia. Neither of Tolstoi's books based on this subject is given under Marriage, nor under Pennsylvania do we see any of Mrs. Deland's books. Under Relations of the Sexes or Social Purity we particularly miss 'Elective Affinities,' 'Hedged in,' and 'Griffith Gaunt.'

The misprints, as might be expected, are innumerable. In speaking of Percy Russell's 'Guide to English and American Novels' (London, 1894) we said that it was "difficult to prove the hopeless incapacity of the writer without giving the absurd volume more space than it deserves." But a work entitled '*The* Comprehensive Subject-Index . . . ,' and of which the "associate" librarian of the University of Chicago is the "author," is entitled to more attention.

Verdi: Man and Musician. By Frederick J. Crowest. Scribners. Pp. 306.

What Is Good Music? By W. J. Henderson. Scribners. Pp. 205.

Music: How It Came to Be What It Is. By Hannah Smith. Scribners. Pp. 254.

Wonder Tales from Wagner. By Anna Alice Chapin. Harper & Bros. Pp. 189.

Verdi's latest biographer complains that this composer is disposed of by Ritter, in his 'History of Music,' in eleven short lines; that of Naumann's 1,300 pages only two are devoted to him; while Parry, in his 'Studies of the Great Composers,' omits him altogether. This is the more to be regretted as the Verdi literature is rather meagre; Mr. Crowest gives a bibliography of it which is of value *per se*, and also helps to justify his writing another book on the life and works of Italy's greatest operatic composer. He has not produced a work of original research or acute criticism, but it is a useful compilation of facts regarding Verdi and his operas which will most interest the general public. He makes clear the difference in the three styles of the maestro, describing the plots and music of the principal operas belonging to each style. An entertaining account is given of Verdi's home life at Sant' Agata, and the key to his longevity is found in his habit of rising early, working in the garden, and living chiefly on cheese and eggs. Verdi, it seems, cares little for music at home, and seldom visits the opera save for business purposes. To the critic Filippi he once wrote: "At St. Agata we neither make nor talk about music; you will run the risk of finding a piano not only out of tune, but very likely without strings." He hates to "talk shop" or to be asked musical questions. Cards and billiards are his chief indoor amusements, and in the evening he reads chiefly poetry and philosophy.

It is somewhat difficult to conjecture for what class of readers Mr. Henderson's book was written. While not obscure to one who knows at least as much as he does, it is in many places altogether too technical and pedantic to be of any use to an amateur who needs to be told what good music is. He tells us, for instance, that "the listener to a fugue should identify the Subject and watch for the Answer. He should note whether it is direct or inverted, or whether it has been augmented or diminished. At the same time he should hear the Countersubject and bear it in mind." Such remarks are intelligible only to students of harmony, and for them they are superfluous. Mr. Henderson labors under the delusion—which mars his whole book—that "the person who desires to cultivate a taste in music ought to be acquainted first of all with musical form and the history of music." You might as well say that a person who wishes to cultivate a taste in poetry must first of all learn the rules and subtleties of poetic construction. Not one reader of poetry in a thousand knows them, nor does he need to know them unless he intends to write poetry himself.

In a lucid moment Mr. Henderson himself admits that "more than ninety-nine out of every hundred critics err in judgment of a thing wholly new in music, because the majority of them base their judgments almost entirely on form and style." Precisely so. The general public, ignorant of the rules of musical form, knew "what is good music" when it heard Wagner and Liszt long before the critics and other experts in form did. Seriously to attribute to Liszt the remark (p. 156), "Three things are necessary to make a great pianist—First, technic; second, *technic;* and third, TECHNIC," is to show an amazing misconception of Liszt's genius and character. As a matter of fact, he seldom paid any attention whatever to the technique of his pupils, taking that for granted, and bestowing all his attention on interpretation, style, and expression. Mr. Henderson has a good deal to say about Paderewski and his art, yet can write (p. 171) that "Bach, Beethoven, and Schumann are better tests of a player's ability than the astonishing works of Liszt." This shows a startling lacuna in our author's knowledge of "what is good music."

'How Music Came to Be What It Is' is somewhat similar in scope to Mr. Henderson's book (having chapters on the piano, orchestra, oratorio, etc.), but it is more useful because it is intelligible throughout to beginners. It is simply a compilation of facts regarding acoustics, the history of music, the evolution of instruments, the "schools" of various countries, etc.; but the facts are so judiciously selected and so clearly grouped that the book can be highly commended. It is freely illustrated with examples in musical type, and pictures of obsolete forms of instruments. In view of the fact that the late Anton Seidl was often criticised by pedants for daring to infuse dramatic life into Beethoven's works, it is interesting to find (p. 191) the following citation from what Beethoven's friend Schindler wrote regarding that great composer; he laid the greatest stress on musical declamation, "for," said he, "although the poet in his monologue or dialogue follows a regular and definite rhythm, yet as the actor or reciter, to insure a perfect comprehension of the meaning of the poem, makes rests and pauses even where the poet would not venture to indicate them, so must a player employ his art of declamation in his performance of the music." "Almost any mature work of Beethoven," justly adds Miss Smith, "reveals this dramatic element"; and it was that element which Anton Seidl always emphasized, in accordance with Beethoven's intentions.

Less than a year ago a girl of seventeen wrote a book on Wagner's "Ring of the Nibelung" under the title of 'The Story of Rheingold,' which was cordially commended in this journal. The Harpers have now added a companion volume by the same author, with the title 'Wonder Tales from Wagner,' which is dedicated "to the children who may hear Richard Wagner's operas, in the hope of aiding them to understand those masterpieces." It tells the stories of five operas—"The Flying Dutchman," "Tannhäuser," "Lohengrin," "Tristan and Isolde," and "Die Meistersinger." There is also a short preface discussing the sources of Wagner's legendary material. While this book is primarily intended for young folks, adults will find it most interesting. Miss Chapin has a remarkable talent for converting a drama into a story and telling it logically and fascinatingly. In some places great ingenuity is shown in overcoming perplexing details. It would not be strange if Miss Chapin should some day make her mark as an original story-teller.

Through Finland in Carts. By Mrs. Alec Tweedie. The Macmillan Co.

The reader of this very entertaining travel narrative need not despair if he seems to be rather long in coming to the carts which figure in the title. As a matter of fact, only two hundred miles of the journey were covered in that manner, while the other means of locomotion ranged from ordinary steamers to phenomenally slow Finnish railway trains, and even a tar-boat down dangerous rapids and through hair-breadth escapes of the most exciting character. Mrs. Tweedie and her sister were provided with good introductions, and accompanied by an accomplished Finnish lady. They were thus enabled to see many things, and to obtain many privileges, which the ordinary traveller who shall accept the author's enthusiastic recommendation to spend the summer there, will sadly lack. Without similar facilities, it is doubtful whether he could reach or enjoy the happy hunting and fishing-grounds which abound in that archipelagic land of islands and lakes, as the language is, of itself, a very formidable obstacle. Every noun has sixteen cases, and the suffixes vary so much that the original nominative becomes almost unrecognizable.

While professing to write merely a sketch of a pleasant summer trip, Mrs. Tweedie has thoughtfully added much interesting information about the products, education, and general statistics of Finland, very properly taking her facts from the best available sources, and duly crediting them. Thus, she quotes the educational report prepared for the Chicago Exposition, and gives long extracts from Mr. Crawford's translation of the Finnish Epic, the 'Kalevala,' to illustrate the antiquity of contemporary customs and beliefs. One striking point lies in the identity of many customs and institutions with those of Russia, from the vapor bath up and down the scale. Had the author been aware of this resemblance, she might have utilized her opportunities to settle the question as to whether one people borrowed from the other, which, and at what date. But she is, evidently, not familiar with Russia, despite the description of a baptism and the attendant ceremonies which she witnessed in St. Petersburg. It is not apparent whether her usually keen powers of observation failed her on that occasion, or whether the errors in that description and her assertions arose from an attempt to reproduce from memory something seen on a distant former occasion. The requisite and accurate knowledge, if applied to the ques-

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tion of customs and the like, might lead to interesting results.

But there is enough of interest without that: the vivid account of a visit to the Russian monastery of Vaalam, and the meeting with the young novice there; the great Musical Festival at Sordavala (corresponding to the Welsh Eisteddfod), and the Runo singers; the baths in an ingeniously diverted waterfall; the trip to Uleaborg on one of the boats used for carrying tar-barrels, to which reference has already been made; the pictures of peasant life (as well as of high life), and of the cottages and equipments. Unfortunately, there are two drawbacks to the enticing picture of sport and splendid sunsets, novelty and hospitality; and the author frankly confesses it. In high life, the almost invisibly small midges render existence a burden, and in low life, insects nameless and otherwise, but innumerable, torture and disgust the non-native. Warned by their own experiences in Finland and by the counsels of their Finnish friends, Mrs. Tweedie and her sister abandoned their intention to explore Lapland, which even Finns pronounced unapproachable in summer because of the insects.

The volume is so full of miscellaneous information concerning trees, fruits, food, and the daily needs and pleasures, that quotation is impossible. There is not a dull page in it, and the style is very well adapted to the needs of such a book, which must combine the useful with the agreeable. Mrs. Tweedie is an experienced traveller, and readily adapts herself to circumstances—which in this case mean, chiefly, remarkable and very bad beds, ranging from the unaired box-bed of the peasant to makeshifts in ruined castles or the top of an antiquated spinet. Whether other travellers will be content to run the risk of similar or worse accommodations for the sake of sunsets, air, and scenery, and overrun Finland in the summer, remains to be seen. It seems probable that, as heretofore, Hango and Helsingfors, for their baths, Imatra for its waterfall, Terioki as a diplomatic resort, and the Finnish suburbs of St. Petersburg will continue the most frequented places, despite their lack of novelty.

The Story of the Palatines: An Episode in Colonial History. By Sanford H. Cobb. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897.

To unravel the strands woven into that variegated fabric which we call the American people is a fascinating employment, and Mr. Cobb has selected a thread which has hitherto been generally overlooked. Prof. Baird's great work has shown how the Huguenots were driven to this country by religious intolerance, and it is largely to the same cause that the emigration of the "Pennsylvania Dutch" was due. These immigrants, Mr. Cobb contends, were chiefly from the Palatinate; they were at all events generally called here Palatines. It is not, however, the story of the Pennsylvania settlers that is told in this book. Its subject is the fortunes of that smaller band of which traces are to be found along the banks of the Hudson and Mohawk Rivers and in the region of Schoharie. Although this immigration has attracted little attention, it was at the time on a larger scale than any other, and was perhaps the most systematic attempt at colonization made by the English Government.

The merciless harrying of the Palatinate by Louis XIV. forced the inhabitants to seek other homes, and, partly through the influence of land speculators who had obtained patents in America, some of the outflow was turned in this direction. It took its course through England, induced by the strong Protestant feeling of that country and its Naturalization Act of 1708; and in the records of the Board of Trade for that year there appears the petition of the Rev. Joshua Kockerthal on behalf of himself and some other "poor Lutherans, come hither from the lower Palatinate, praying to be transferred to some of your Majesty's plantations in America; in number 41, viz.: 10 men, 10 women, and 21 children; in the utmost want, being reduced to this miserable condition by the ravages committed by the French when they lost all they had." This petition was favorably acted on, and resulted in the settlement of Kockerthal's party, somewhat enlarged, in what is now Newburgh on the Hudson. Most of this party removed presently to Pennsylvania.

In the year 1709, it is asserted, no less than 13,000 of these Palatines had arrived in England, where they were treated with great liberality by the rulers, and in the Parish of Newington, at the west of London, four buildings were erected for their shelter which are yet known as "the Palatine Houses." Some of the immigrants enlisted in the British army, some were colonized in Ireland, but the majority were transported to America at the expense of the Government. Of these, some were established in North Carolina, and their descendants are numerous at New Berne; but nearly 3,000 of them were brought to New York, under the auspices of Gov. Hunter. It is with the fortunes of this colony that Mr. Cobb is chiefly concerned. We must content ourselves with noting that, after some expensive attempts to induce them to make tar for the English marine out of a species of pine not productive of that article, they were allowed to shift for themselves. For his part in this attempt to establish a valuable industry (which cost him his fortune), Gov. Hunter receives much praise from Mr. Cobb; and in spite of the hardships of the colonists, they probably fared better than most of the immigrants of that period.

Discontented with their lot in their first locations, at what were known as the West Camp and the East Camp, near Saugerties and on the Livingston Manor, and infatuated with the notion of a mythical grant to them by an Indian chief of the country of "Scorie," many of them emigrated to that region and the Mohawk valley. After much quarrelling over land titles, some of them departed to Pennsylvania; others made terms with their landlords, and their posterity are numerous in those parts. Of this stock was the sturdy Gen. Herkimer (Erghimer), and from it, by intermarriage, the Muhlenbergs and other distinguished families have sprung. It would be interesting to recount these names, and those of the towns and villages along the Mohawk and elsewhere which were taken directly from the Palatinate, but we must refer the curious in such matters to Mr. Cobb's book. Much of it is conjectural history, and there are many points on which light remains to be thrown; but it is a meritorious essay in a field which deserves more exploration than it has received.

La France d'après les Cahiers de 1789. Par Edme Champion. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 1897.

The name of M. Edme Champion is already familiar to students of the history of the French Revolution. He is one of the scholars associated with the greatest living authority upon the period, M. F. A. Aulard, and has edited for the publications of the Society for the History of the French Revolution a useful reprint of the Abbé Sieyès's famous pamphlet, "Qu'est-ce que le tiers état?" and, in coöperation with M. Brette, a facsimile of the celebrated "Oath of the Tennis-Court." His competent knowledge of the preliminaries of the French Revolution caused him to be intrusted by MM. Lavisse and Rambaud with the composition of the first chapter in the volume upon the French Revolution in the great 'Histoire Générale,' now being issued under their direction. For this chapter M. Champion made a complete study of the *cahiers* which were drawn up in every electoral assembly at the time of the elections to the States-General in 1789. The scale of the "Histoire Générale" did not allow him to do more than indicate the results of his studies, and he has now wisely concluded to publish them in a volume.

The cahiers of 1789 form a unique mass of documentary information as to the condition of France on the eve of the Revolution, and the ideals of reform which animated the men who elected the States-General that was destined, as the Constituent Assembly, to give to France the Constitution of 1791. More than three-quarters of the cahiers are, according to M. Champion, accessible either in the seven first volumes of the 'Archives Parlementaires,' or in separate publications, but they have up to the present time been more often alluded to than read. Two opposite views have been propounded as to their value. One school of writers has pointed out that most of the cahiers were not the real expression of the complaints and wishes of the French electors, as they purported to be, but were largely copies of printed models, with a few local additions; while the opposite view regards all the cahiers as the unbiassed expression of the sentiments of the French people. Both positions are partly true. It is only necessary to read a very few of the cahiers to see a degree of sameness in their language which betrays the use of common models. But, on the other hand, some of them, especially those drawn up in the rural primary assemblies and by the guilds of the towns, bear unmistakable marks of originality. We know from other sources that many cahiers were written by individuals and accepted by the electoral assemblies, of which the most famous is the cahier of the cobblers of Arras, drawn up by Robespierre, then a young lawyer in the capital of Artois. It is difficult to allow fairly for the influence of models and individuals upon the cahiers, and M. Champion has perhaps done wisely in taking the cahiers as they stand, without investigating their origin too closely, as the basis of his work. But it must not be forgotten that this question of origin diminishes the value of any attempt to draw general conclusions, for seeming unanimity throughout the cahiers of a province or provinces may indicate nothing more than the use of a common model.

M. Champion approaches his work as a fervent admirer of the French Revolution,

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as might be expected from the school of thinkers and writers to which he belongs, and he therefore naturally finds in the cahiers grounds for a sweeping condemnation of the old régime. But it must be borne in mind that an analysis of the cahiers from the point of view of an admirer of that régime could be made to bring out very different results. One special point may be alluded to, the strong provincial and local patriotism which existed in the France of the eighteenth century, and which finds such abundant illustration in the cahiers, as analyzed by M. Champion. In the face of this widespread sentiment, the student of the Revolution cannot but feel once more how great was the work done by the Constituent Assembly in breaking down the old provincial distinctions, and in creating a united France, divided only for administrative convenience into departments, in the place of the former congeries of provinces which called itself the kingdom of France.

A Handbook of European History, 476-1871. Chronologically arranged. By Arthur Hassall, M.A. Macmillan. 1897.

Of the 383 pages which make up this volume, 360 pages (about one-fourth of which space is left blank by virtue of the arrangement of the matter) are devoted to a synchronological table of European history from the fall of the Western Roman Empire to the close of the late Franco-German war. The remainder of the book consists of summaries, genealogies, and lists of sovereigns. The author offers no apology for breaking off his record with the year 1871. To truncate a structure like the one before us in this manner is materially to impair its utility, a condensed chronological view of recent events being especially a desideratum with students and readers. In addition to the tables contained in Part II., the body of the book is generously interspersed with genealogical matter, arranged in diagrams, which will serve to unravel many a knotted thread drawn through the tangled warp of mediæval and modern history. We are furnished, for example, with genealogical data regarding the Breton succession, the houses of Burgundy and Orleans, the house of Saxony, the dynasty of Wittelsbach, the Simmern line in the Palatinate, the house of Guise, and the line of Holstein-Gottorp.

The 180 double pages which the "Outlines of European History" occupy are divided each into four columns, the two inner being only half as wide as the exterior. Beginning with the middle of the ninth century, the four columns (from left to right) are respectively headed "Germany," "Eastern and Southern Europe" (to which, after the close of the sixteenth century, "Northern Europe" is added), "England," and "France." For the preceding period the fourth column bears the heading "Franks," the first is devoted to other Teutonic tribes, the second is assigned to the Eastern Empire, while the caption "England" naturally runs through the entire table. The principal space, it will be seen, is allotted to Germany and France, which occupy the wide columns. A synoptical table of political history like the present has unquestionably its uses. It serves as a matrix to hold together for the student the facts he has gathered, and supplies him at every step with a background, which enables him to view in better perspective the objects of his special study. Minuteness in such a presentation is rather a defect than a virtue, and our author, whose endeavor has been "merely to bring into prominence the leading facts in the history of the principal states," does not altogether live up to his professions, allowing many an insignificant fact to crop up in his chronicle.

Regarding this volume merely in the light of a companion in one's studies and readings, and not as a source of information, it might perhaps be unfair to hold the compiler to an ideal standard of accuracy; but the shortcomings on this score of Mr. Hassall's rather pretentious work would be too much even for the most lenient critic. To begin with the last page, we encounter such mistakes or misprints as Oct. 23 for the capitulation of Bazaine (Oct. 27), Feb. 2 for the meeting of the National Assembly at Bordeaux (Feb. 12), and Jan. 1 for the proclamation of William's imperial dignity (Jan. 18). Turning one leaf, we find the declaration of papal infallibility antedated by exactly one year. We do not mean to say, however, that the book is as faulty as this throughout. Of course, Mr. Hassall has not avoided the pitfalls which the Gregorian Calendar prepared for chronologists and encyclopædists, apparently for all time. The battles of the Boyne, La Hogue, Neerwinden, and Ramillies are entered according to the old style, and Steenkerk, Blenheim, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet according to the new. The volume teems with inadequate and infelicitous expressions. The Cuban insurrection "continues" in 1869, but no mention is made under 1868 of its having broken out. The death of Prim is entered without any hint of assassination, and the annexation of the Papal States to the kingdom of Italy is given without any mention of the dramatic *coup* of September 20. Under 1241 we read that "a Mongol invasion of Russia, Poland, and Hungary takes place." The Russians had had their share of the Asiatics before the year 1241 opened, the yoke of the Golden Horde having been fastened upon them in 1240. In spite of the generous scale on which this chronological table has been compiled, events of great importance have been overlooked, as, for example, the conquest of Rhodes by the Turks, and the battle of Mars-la-Tour. The book has the merit of considerable fulness of characterization and description, and the student who is not too particular about the style, and can stand the exasperating alternation of the historical present and the past (often in the same sentence), may spend an occasional half-hour over this attractively printed duodecimo pleasantly and not without profit.

The Life of Philip Schaff. In part autobiographical. By David S. Schaff, D.D., Professor of Church History in Lane Theological Seminary. With portraits. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1897.

The bias of his filial piety has not prevented Dr. Schaff's biographer from making a good book, and one which does not exaggerate the importance of his father's work as a scholar or his personal influence. The material was such as lent itself to the uses of the biographer better than the dull round of a scholar's life generally does. Particularly interesting are Dr. Philip Schaff's reminiscences of his early education in the German universities—an education which broadened his intellectual sympathies to an eminent degree. He described himself as "a Swiss by birth, a German by education, and an American by choice." His first ambition was to be a soldier, his second to be a poet, his third and last to be a theologian; and this prefigured a remarkable success. His reminiscences of university life afford interesting glimpses of the giants of those days when Baur and Ewald and Strauss were at Tübingen, Tholuck was at Halle, and Neander and the redoubtable Hengstenberg were at Berlin. Young Schaff made trial of them all. Had he begun at Berlin with Hengstenberg and ended at Tübingen with Baur, his whole life would probably have been different. As it was, Tholuck and Neander did much to efface the impression that Baur made upon his mind. In happy contrast with the conventionally orthodox estimate of Baur, he wrote of him in 1888, "He was a great genius, a theological genius of the first order. What a stir he made in theological circles, and what a mighty impetus he gave to critical and theological investigation!" Dr. Schaff credits Baur with his first idea of theological development in Christian history. The picture of Ewald is a striking one: "He always spoke and wrote with oracular self-assurance, as if he himself had been consulted by Moses and the prophets, by the Elohist, Jahvist, Deuteronomist, and other writers of the Pentateuch, real or invented, before they composed their chapters." "He had no humor, but an unlimited amount of sarcasm." He denounced Baur as "no Christian, only a common literary Jew." It was in perfect keeping with his general character that in 1848 he wrote a public letter to the Pope, calling on him to resign his office, and that, the Pope not answering, he said, "He doesn't dare to!"

At the conclusion of his university studies, Dr. Schaff served a brief term as *privatdocent* at Berlin, having several Americans of subsequent repute among his pupils. One of these, Park of Andover, first brought Jonathan Edwards to his attention; and when, in 1854, Herzog wanted a writer on Edwards for his 'Encyclopædia,' Dr. Schaff suggested Park or Stowe; and "He chose Dr. Stowe on account of the fame of his wife's 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.'" In 1843 Dr. Schaff came to America and entered on the duties of a professorship at Mercersburg, Pa., in a theological school belonging to the German Reformed Church. He soon found himself in hot water. His inaugural address upon "The Protestant Principle" was denounced as heretical, and he was made subject to a trial for heresy, but was finally acquitted. Perhaps it was easier to regard him as a Romanizing Puseyite because he had paid Pusey a visit in England. The trouble was that he conceived the Roman Church to be a branch of the true vine, and no mere "scarlet woman" nor the Pope "a son of perdition." Dr. Schaff's heresy is now a commonplace in the German Reformed Church, though for a long time it was known as "the Mercersburg theology."

His next battle was with those who would keep the Germans German in America, and to that end enforce the habitual use of the German language in education and religion. Dr. Schaff came to America hoping to return and lead a university life in Germany, but his identification with America was finally complete. He fought a good fight for the Americanization of German Americans, though fully appreciating the sentiment of the elderly German woman who,

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hearing him preach in German, as he did for a long time, said to him, "English is like cold water poured on my heart; German is like balsam." During his last years in Mercersburg, the seat of war moved into his vicinity, and the situation was sometimes critical, and sometimes the class-rooms served as the wards of a hospital for wounded soldiers.

Resigning his professorship in 1863, he took up his residence in New York, but it was not until 1870 that he was made professor of church history in the Union Theological Seminary, where he would strike into the student's recitation, go on indefinitely, and then applaud the student's good success. He formally connected himself with the Presbyterians, explaining in advance his objections to the Westminster Confession, but finding the terms of subscription liberal enough to satisfy his scruples. Later he was one of the most prominent among those who contended vainly for the revision of the Confession. He never identified himself with the Presbyterian body as he had identified himself with the German Reformed, but devoted himself to the unification of the Christian Church. On this line he was the moving spirit of the Evangelical Alliance at its meeting in New York. His leadership was equally conspicuous in the revision of the English Bible. He was the chairman of the American Board of Revision, and did much to consummate its final relation with the English board on a basis of decent equality. A visit to the German universities in 1885 afforded him a good opportunity to compare the professorate of that date with that of his own youth. He wrote of Dr. Briggs as no more a heretic than himself, but lacking the *suaviter in modo*, having which he would offend no one except "old fogies who believe in the infallibility of John Calvin." Writing of Calvin and Servetus he concluded, "Heresy is an error; intolerance is a sin; persecution is a crime." It was only natural that he should be deeply interested in the Chicago Parliament of Religions. Warned by his physicians not to go, he said, "If I die, I want to die in the Parliament of Religions." But, once there, he had not strength to read his elaborate plea for Christian unity.

His theological labors were immense, and a list of the books he wrote and edited and his other publications makes an appendix of eight pages. Among these publications was a 'History of the Christian Church' in seven volumes, 'The Creeds of Christendom' in three, and other things quite as voluminous. His influence, as a whole, made definitely for breadth of scholarship and liberal religious sentiment, while the personality behind the theologian is an attractive one from first to last.

Indian Frontier Warfare. By Brevet-Major G. J. Younghusband. [The Wolseley Series.] Charles Scribner's Sons. 8vo, pp. xvi, 264, with maps.

English military operations in Northern India, Afghanistan, and Burmah are very unlike those in Europe, and have many points of resemblance to our army work in this country. A mountain country, forest-covered, with no roads, and great distances between posts, with snow blockades on the high passes, and with wild tribes, brave but irregularly organized, to contend with, are conditions that are duplicated along our Rocky Mountain ranges. The jungles of Burmah, with their malarial, fever-and-cholera-stricken climate and tropical heats, would only too closely resemble the obstacles to campaigning in Cuba, should it be the fate of our army to operate in that island.

For these reasons Capt. Younghusband's book will be scarcely less instructive to the American than to the British officer. The author deals very intelligently and systematically with the peculiarities of such irregular warfare, in campaigns and expeditions great and small; with offensive and defensive methods; with the commissariat, the transportation, and the medical service. Such lessons in the exercise of judgment to fit old rules and organizations to new circumstances are of the greatest value to those who know how to profit by them. Of course they are not to be imitated in detail, but they suggest expedients, stimulate analogous inventions, and tend to make an officer a man rather than a machine, a self-reliant master of circumstances instead of their slave. Used in this way, the book is one of the most valuable lately published, and every soldier should be familiar with it. We can promise, too, that he will greatly enjoy the familiarity.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, Grant. The Incidental Bishop. Appletons. $1.
Adeney, W. F. The Construction of the Bible. Whittaker. 50c.
Boldrewood, Rolf. Plain Living: A Bush Idyll. Macmillan. $1.75.
Butler, Prof. Nicholas M. The Meaning of Education, and Other Essays. Macmillan. $1.
Cunningham, Rev. W. *An Essay on Western Civilization* in its Economic Aspects (Ancient Times). Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.60.
Dye, Charity. The Story-Teller's Art; a Guide to the Study of Fiction. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Edgren, H., and Fossler, L. A Brief German Grammar. American Book Co. 75c.
Fisher, A. H. The Cathedral Church of Hereford. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan. 60c.
Godkin, E. L. Unforeseen Tendencies of Democracy. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Honey, F. R. First Lessons in Linear Perspective. Scribners. 50c.
Johnston, J. S. First Explorations of Kentucky. Journals of Dr. Thomas Walker, 1750, and Christopher Gist, 1751. Louisville; J. P. Morton & Co.
Koerner, H. T. Beleaguered: A Story of Baden in the 17th Century. Putnams. $1.50.
Larison, C. W. Reminiscences of a Teacher. Ringoes, N. J.: Fonic Publishing House.
Macmillan, Rev. Hugh. The Spring of the Day. Whittaker. $1.50.
Oxenden, Maud. A Reputation for a Song. London: Edward Arnold.
Pope's Rape of the Lock, and Essay on Man. American Book Co. 20c.
Riley, J. W. Rhymes of Childhood. Scribners.
Romero, Matias. Geographical and Statistical Notes on Mexico. Putnams. $2.
Sathanas; or, Random Thoughts of a Rambling Thinker. London: W. M. Thomson.
Sergeant, Lewis. The Franks. [The Story of the Nations.] Putnams. $1.50.
Tennyson, Lord. Crossing the Bar. Decorations by Blanche McManus. E. R. Herrick & Co. 25c.
Voorhees, Daniel W. Forty Years of Oratory. 2 vols. Indianapolis: Bowen-Merrill Co. $6.

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